

JUSTICE IN LEADERSHIP

An Integration

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ABSTRACT

The present study investigated the factors perceived as important in making a leader fair. Trait, behavioural and interaction theories of leadership have made little reference to fairness as a criterion of effective leadership. However a large body of research has been carried out in the areas of procedural and distributive justice. The aim of this study was to bring together the areas of Organisational Justice and Leadership. 56 New Zealand Police Constables from Christchurch responded to an open-ended questionnaire where they described the determinants of a fair leader. By Q-sort analysis the responses were categorised into 20 distinct determinants of fairness in leadership. 390 Constables from the New Zealand Police completed the questionnaire: 190 from Christchurch and 200 from Auckland. A comparison was carried out between two generations of Constables: generation one had more than 2 years service and generation two had less than 2 years service. Ratings of the perceived importance of each determinant were factor analysed for the entire sample, yielding 2 distinct factors: 'consistency, bias suppression and concern for individuals' needs', and, 'job competence, a sense of humour and personal integrity'. No differences were found between the factors of the two generations, however analyses revealed that the older generation perceived importance of fairness in leadership as more important than the younger generation. The results are discussed in terms of both organisational justice and leadership literature.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

For decades, academics and researchers alike have been developing theories and models of leadership. Each claiming the underlying factors and principles of what makes an effective leader. They range from trait theories of the 'born leader' to interactional theories that emphasize the interrelation of a variety of factors such as the disposition of the leader, the followers, the situation and the characteristics of the organisation.

Alongside leadership theories, a completely different body of research into organisational justice has been developing. This research has stemmed primarily from the legal environment, but has also been developed in various other organisational domains. For example, Greenberg (1986a) looked at the perceived fairness of distributive and procedural processes in performance evaluations and Singer (1987) examined the determinants of perceived fairness in selection.

In the last decade there has been an ever increasing emphasis placed on equal employment opportunities. Accordingly, much research has been conducted to investigate possible discrimination in organisational practices. Studies examining the fairness of selection and performance appraisals are necessary in order to help identify and develop equal opportunities for selection and promotion. To this end, it is also important to investigate the particular aspects of a process that the partaking individual perceives as important.

The concept of being a fair leader is an important one. The ancient Egyptians and Greeks perceived justice as an essential quality of a good ruler and more recently, popular literature on 'how to be a good leader', also purports that fairness is a vital leadership component. Fundamentally, a leader is only as good as the individuals he/she is leading and therefore the cooperation of followers is necessary. If a leader is perceived as treating subordinates in an unfair fashion, then his/her influence and authority may become severely hampered.

To date, fairness has not been incorporated into academic theories of leadership. This void in the leadership literature needs to be acknowledged. Admittedly many of the areas investigated in studies involving justice do include the actions of a leader, however they are primarily concerned with the organisational practice under investigation rather than the person. This is an exploratory study which aims at providing a basis for future theoretical work.

The chapters that follow give firstly a review of the literature that has been carried out in the areas of organisational justice and leadership. The justice literature is given within the framework of Greenberg's (1987a) Taxonomy of Organisational Justice Theories, followed by a review of Trait, Behavioural and Interactional Theories of Leadership. The final section of this chapter identifies possibilities and scope for these two areas to be intergrated.

Chapter three sets out the rationale for the study. Based on the current economic climate of New Zealand as well as possible implications of poor leadership, there is a need to identify, from a subordinates perspective, what

makes a leader fair. In addition, based on supporting evidence from both leadership and justice domains, the study examines differences in the perceptions of two generations within one organisation.

Chapter four contains the four phase method used to carry out the study. Chapter five presents the results. Following the format set out in the rationale, this chapter is organised into four sections; the perceived factors of leadership fairness, different perceptions across generations, the importance of fairness and leadership and additional findings.

The discussion, in chapter six, examines the specific determinants and factors that have been found. The differences between the two generations are also discussed. The latter section of this chapter focuses on the limitations of the study, the implications of the results and recommendations for future research.

Finally, chapter seven contains the conclusions that can be derived from the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE THEORIES

In 1987a Greenberg presented a Taxonomy of Organisational Justice Theories. He identified two conceptually independent dimensions; a reactive - proactive dimension and a process - content dimension. With the assumption that these two dimensions are independent, Greenberg identified four categories of organisational justice theories; reactive-content, reactive-process, proactive-content and proactive-process. To date this is the most parsimonious approach to presenting justice theories, and thus shall be used as a framework for the following review.

REACTIVE - CONTENT THEORIES

Reactive - content theories are those which focus on how an individual reacts or responds to unfair outcomes. Such theories of justice have their conceptual roots in balance theories of the 1950's, for example, Festinger's (1957) Cognitive Dissonance Theory.

Equity Theory

Perhaps the most widely acknowledged theory of this type is Equity Theory (Adams 1965, Walster et al 1973). The basic proposition of Equity Theory is that when two individuals exchange anything, there is always the possibility

that one member will view the exchange as unfair or inequitable. Adams proposed that there are a variety of attributes relative to the exchange. The attributes one person brings to the exchange are termed 'inputs'. Inputs are the same as Homan's (1961) investments. What the person receives from the exchange is termed 'outputs'. When there is a perceived imbalance between inputs and outputs then inequity arises.

Adams (1965) discusses the equity principle in terms of reference; Person and Other.

"Person is any individual for whom equity or inequity exists. Other is any individual with whom person is in an exchange relationship, or with whom person compares himself when he and other are in an exchange relationship with a third party, such as an employer..."(pg 111)

An example of a situation where perceived inequity may arise: Beatrice and Charlotte have both worked as checkout operators at a supermarket for three years. They both do exactly the same job. Beatrice, however, receives \$30 a week more pay than Charlotte. Charlotte perceives that she has the same output level as Beatrice and thus in comparison feels the exchange with the employer is inequitable. According to Adams (1965) Beatrice would also feel inequity as she is being overpaid in comparison to Charlotte.

Equity theory proposes that a person will try and reduce the inequity. There are six possible ways in which an individual may do this.

1. By altering inputs (eg, working less or more).
2. By altering outcomes.

3. By distorting inputs and outcomes cognitively. (eg. changing one's perception of the relative importance of either).
4. Leaving the field.
5. Acting on Other (eg. getting other to lower his/her inputs or outcomes).
6. By changing the object of comparison.

Most of the work on evaluating Equity Theory has been conducted in work settings, primarily because the theory is so relevant to work related situation (Greenberg 1987a). For example, Pritchard et al (1972) and Lawler & O'Gara (1967) looked at the effects of inequitable pay distribution on employees' job satisfaction and job attitudes respectively. A characteristic experiment of Equity Theory usually involved manipulation by an experimenter leading a subject to believe that he or she was being over or under paid. Subjects could have been induced to feel overpaid either by the experimenter informing them that an error had been made and they would receive the same pay as more qualified workers (eg. Adams & Rosenbaum 1962), or by using a confederate co-worker who would through conversations lead the subject to discover they were equally qualified but unequally paid (eg. Garland 1973). Both Garland's and Adams & Rosenbaum's studies, as with the majority of research on pay inequity, focused on the process of altering inputs as a means of reducing cognitive dissonance or inequity.

The Theory of Relative Deprivation

A more recent reactive content theory is the Theory of Relative Deprivation (Crosby 1984, Martin 1981). Relative Deprivation Theory postulates that deprivation occurs when Person compares his/her own rewards or outcomes with those of a comparative referent.

"The basic proposition of relative deprivation theory is that the feeling of deprivation stems from a comparison between the rewards received by oneself or one's membership group and the rewards received by some other person or group, referred to as a comparative referent"(Martin 1981, pg.57).

The model of Relative Deprivation involves four variables; the distribution of rewards, the process of comparison, feelings of deprivation and behaviour. Much research on relative deprivation has focused on violent behavioural reactions (Crosby 1976). There has however been research carried out in organisational settings. Crosby (1976) cites a study carried out in Newton, Massachusetts in which part of the research looked at feelings of deprivation between employed women, employed men and housewives. Not surprisingly, as Crosby points out, working women, although maybe more advantaged than non working women, felt more aggrieved about sex discrimination. This is primarily because they compare themselves to working men.

Equity Theory and the Theory of Relative Deprivation are two key theories in the area of organisational justice. As well as helping in our understanding of social issues (Walster et al 1973), both theories have contributed to our understanding of how workers react to the perceived unfair distribution of outcomes.

The Referent Cognitions Theory

Nevertheless, there are some critics of these theories. Folger (1986) does not completely abandon Equity Theory but expands on it with the Referent Cognitions Theory. The key problem that Folger identifies in the previous two theories is that they neglect the procedural aspect. He maintains that we should not be concerned with the notion of inputs but instead focus on the procedures and conditions that lead to outcomes. The Referent Cognitions Theory proposes several factors that will influence perceptions of an outcome. The first factor is 'referent cognitions', which refers to a mental comparison of what might have been. Second is the perceived 'likelihood of amelioration', that is, outcomes may at some point be relatively unimportant and considered transient; and thirdly circumstances that are instrumental in leading to outcomes are referred to as 'instrumentalities'.

To demonstrate these features of the Referent Cognitions Theory, Folger (1986) gives an example from research on social cognitions by Kahneman & Tversky (1982).

"Crane and Tees were riding to the airport together in a limousine. They were going to different locations, so they were both booked on different flights. Both planes however, were scheduled to leave at the same time. The limousine did not get to the airport until 30 minutes later than this time, and both men missed their flights as a result. But Cranes plane has left on time (30 minutes before the limousine got to the airport), whereas Tees learned that his flight's takeoff had been delayed until just 5 minutes before the time he arrived."
(pg. 148)

Kahneman & Tversky's research focused on psychological distance. That is, Tees would be more upset than Crane as the distance between his actual outcome of missing the plane and the referent outcome of making the flight was smaller. Referent Cognitions Theory extends this to also make a distinction between high and low referent outcomes. For example, if Tees learned that the plane he had just missed had crashed, the referent outcome is then low. Tees's reaction to missing the flight would also depend on how easily he could catch another, that is, the likelihood of amelioration. If he could not catch another flight for one week (low likelihood of amelioration) he would be more upset than if he could catch another in two hours (high likelihood of amelioration). Finally, instrumentalities involved in the example focus on the reasons why they were late. That is, was there a good reason for their delay?

Folger et al (1983) investigated the validity of the Referent Cognitions Theory and found evidence to support these propositions. Procedural justice perceptions did effect feelings and reactions to outcomes. It could be said that this Referent Cognitions Theory, although primarily concerned with remodelling Equity Theory, is not strictly a reactive content theory. There is more emphasis placed on procedures. Nonetheless it still centres on an individual's reaction to a particular outcome. In this sense it is useful to see how research on Equity Theory has developed.

REACTIVE PROCESS THEORIES

Reactive process theories have developed from research in the legal field. Thibaut & Walker's (1975) Theory of Procedural Justice is the most

dominant reactive process theory and one from which much research in this field stems.

The theory is very much influenced by legal procedures. It focuses on three parties - two disputants and an intervening third party, as well as two stages - the process stage and the decision stage where the dispute is resolved. The particular control over each stage is varied. Control over the process stage is referred to as process control and likewise control over the decision stage is known as decision control. By varying the type of control vested in each party, different procedures can be used. Autocratic procedures give full control to the third party, arbitration procedures give the third party control over decisions but not processes, mediation procedures give the third party control over processes and not decisions and finally bargaining procedure gives the third party no control. In some situations equal control is given to both the disputants and the third party, referred to as moot procedures (Greenberg 1987a).

The Theory of Procedural Justice is concerned with how people will react to decision making using these various procedures. Much of the research by Thibaut & Walker (1975) has focused on reactions to autocratic and arbitration procedures, primarily, as these they parallel the major legal systems of Europe and America. Europe has an inquisitorial system where the judge has complete control over the presentation of evidence and the verdict, whereas the American adversary system gives control over evidence presentation to the litigants and the judge has control only over the verdict (Greenberg 1987a), although it has been pointed out that pure forms of these procedures rarely exist (Sheppard 1984).

The Theory of Procedural Justice predicts that litigants will perceive the adversary system as more fair than the inquisitorial system which gives them neither process nor decision control. There has been much supporting evidence for this theory (eg. Houlden et al 1978, Leung & Lind 1986, Lind et al 1983, Musante et al 1983). In addition, moderating variables have been found to have a significant impact on perceptions of fairness. For example, permitting the litigants to have a 'voice' in the procedures enhances perceptions of even unfair processes or unfavourable decisions (Folger 1977, LaTour 1978, Lind et al 1980, Tyler et al 1985), and outcomes that are of medium or high favourability to the litigants are perceived as fair regardless of the procedure used, but low outcomes are perceived as fair only when a fair procedure is used (Greenberg 1987b). Furthermore Mark (1985) found that the reactions to unfair procedures can have considerable effects on the litigants such as less achievement strivings, more anger and marginally less self-deprecation.

The Theory of Procedural Justice has also been extended to situations other than the formal legal setting. Tyler & Caine (1981) found reactions to decisions and encounters with politicians were very much influenced by the procedures they followed, Sheppard (1984, 1985) applied the theory to the resolution of labour disputes and Greenberg (1986b) focused on performance appraisal procedures.

Thibaut & Walker's (1975) Theory of Procedural Justice concentrates on reactions to outcomes based on particular procedures. Although it is not the only form of reactive process theory that has been developed, to date it has been the greatest influence of work in this area.

PROACTIVE THEORIES

Proactive theories of justice focus on behaviours of individuals that are designed to promote justice. Within his taxonomy Greenberg (1987a) differentiates between proactive-process and proactive-content approaches. These two theoretical approaches are exemplified by the Justice Judgement Model (Leventhal 1980) and the Allocation Preference Theory (Leventhal et al 1980) respectively. Although Greenberg's (1987a) categorisation of these two theories may appear parsimonious, both are concerned with distributive and procedural aspects of justice. The Justice Judgement Model is nested in the broader domain of Allocation Preference Theory (Leventhal et al 1980) and thus a clearer understanding of the two theories can be achieved if they are discussed simultaneously.

Allocation Preference Theory emphasises the interaction and tie-in between the individuals psychological processes and the social structure of the organisation. In particular, the theory holds that the allocative process is vital to the survival of an organisation primarily as it directly influences the satisfaction and well being of its members. The issue of fairness and the allocative process is treated by Allocation Preference Theory as a subsidiary topic. Leventhal et al (1980) believe that it is only part of a broader aspect of how people react to allocations. This area of fairness within the theory is the Justice Judgement Model of Leventhal (1980). An initial outline of the Allocation Preference Theory is necessary however to understand the role of the Justice Judgement Model.

Allocation Preference Theory

The theory of Allocation Preferences has its roots in expectancy theories of motivation. The model provides descriptions of what determinants will influence an individual's choice of procedure or distribution from among a family or set of procedures and distributions. The prediction of these determinants and choices is based on four assumptions (Leventhal et al 1980 pg.201-203),

1. "That an individual holds the expectancy that a given process or procedure will either facilitate, interfere with or be irrelevant to the attainment of a given goal or distribution."(pg.201).
2. "That an individual typically has several goals in an allocation situation and that these goals often differ in importance."(pg.201 -202).
3. "That an individual usually expects a distribution to affect the attainment of several goals at one time and that his or her overall preference for that distribution can be predicted with an expectancy model that takes account of the importance of each relevant goal and the expectancy about the effect of that distribution on attaining the goal."(pg.202).
4. "That an individual usually perceives several alternative types of distribution as relevant and ranks them in a preference hierarchy."(pg.203).

Allocation Preference Theory assumes that each individual possesses cognitive maps of an organisational system including maps of allocative procedures. These cognitive maps shape the individual's perceptions of the particular procedure or distribution. Thus, the organisation itself is instrumental in influencing an individual's judgement of the advantages of such a given process or outcome. In addition there are also moderating

variables that will influence an individual's judgement. One of the factors is that individuals tend to prefer procedures that are stable over time as they are likely to reduce distrust and increase personal security (Leventhal et al 1980). Even procedures that are initially perceived as unfavourable may be accepted over time. A second factor is the perceived fairness of a particular procedure or distribution. Fairness is portrayed with the Justice Judgement Model.

The Justice Judgement Model

The Justice Judgement Model, in contrast to Equity Theory, takes a multi-dimensional approach to justice. Perceptions of fairness are based on several rules rather than a single rule or factor. These rules are referred to as justice rules and are defined as ,

"an individual's belief that a distribution of outcomes or procedure for distributing outcomes is fair and appropriate when it satisfies certain criteria."(Leventhal 1980 pg.30).

Justice rules can be either distributive or procedural.

Distributive Justice Rules

These rules are based on the individual's belief that rewards, punishments and resources are fair and appropriate when distributed in accordance with certain criteria (Leventhal et al 1980).

Individuals apply different justice rules selectively at different times. Major

rules in the category are the contribution rule, needs rule and equality rule. In the Justice Judgement Model, Leventhal provides a four stage model by which the individual evaluates the particular fairness of rewards and punishments (Leventhal 1980 pg 31).

1. **WEIGHTING:** In this stage the individual decides which rules are applicable and their relative importance.
2. **PRELIMINARY ESTIMATION:** The individual makes an estimation of the type and amount of outcome the receiver deserves based on each applicable rule.
3. **RULE COMBINATION:** The individual combines these preliminary estimates to arrive at a final judgement of the receiver's deservingness.
4. **OUTCOME EVALUATION:** At this stage the individual assesses the fairness of the receiver's outcomes.

The characteristics of situations in which individuals apply particular justice rules within the four stage model are still somewhat uninvestigated. Furthermore, little is known about the relative weight given to these rules, unfortunately a common problem of a multi-dimensional approach.

Procedural Justice Rules (*It is this part of Allocation Preference theory that Greenberg (1987a) refers to as a proactive-process theory.*)

The concept of procedural fairness is based on an individual's perception of procedures used to allocate resources. Such perceptions are stimulated by the individual's cognitive maps of the particular situation and organisation. The Justice Judgement model identifies specific areas of a procedural process where an individual may apply the procedural rules; selection of agents, setting ground rules, gathering information, decision structure, appeals, safeguards and change mechanisms. Within his/her cognitive map of the

organisational system and environment, an individual can evaluate the fairness of any of these structural components (Leventhal 1980).

The process by which an individual evaluates these components is by a set of procedural rules. The allocative procedures should satisfy certain criteria the individual believes fair and appropriate. There are six procedural rules in the Justice Judgement Model;

1. **THE CONSISTENCY RULE:** Procedure should be consistent across people and time.
2. **THE BIAS-SUPPRESSION RULE:** bias on behalf of the decision maker should be prevented.
3. **THE ACCURACY RULE:** the allocative process should be based on correct and good information.
4. **THE CORRECTABILITY RULE:** opportunities should exist to enable modification of decisions.
5. **THE REPRESENTATIVENESS RULE:** the allocative process should reflect the concerns of all persons and subgroups.
6. **THE ETHICALITY RULE:** the procedures must adhere to fundamental moral and ethical values.

An individual applies these rules selectively when evaluating the fairness of a particular procedure. However the relative importance and weighting given to each rule is still largely unknown. To date, although currently being explored, there is an absence of substantial research in this area.

A further aspect that is incorporated in both the Justice Judgement Model and the theory of Allocation Preferences is that judgements of fairness, as well as containing a cognitive aspect, also involve motivation. This motivation from the individual will determine whether he/she will make

fairness judgements. A person will not be motivated unless he/she feel the allocation procedures and distributions are important. Factors that may influence this motivation include the individual's social role, any suspicion of violation and the extent to which the organisation is monolithic or pluralistic (Leventhal et al 1980). For example, the particular allocation methods in a monolithic system are likely to be more consistent and stable. Questions of fairness may not be raised as after a certain period of time they become accepted.

Research into the Allocation Preference Theory has been limited, although supportive (Greenberg 1987a). Greenberg (1986a) used an open-ended questionnaire and factor analysis with a sample of middle managers to investigate the determinants of perceived fairness of performance evaluations. The results showed two main factors of procedural and distributive determinants. These procedural determinants were consistent with Leventhal's (1980) theory. Singer (1987) extended the model to look at perceived fair selection processes and found supporting evidence. Individuals perceived consistency, ethicality, bias avoidance, information soliciting, choice of selectors and the opportunity to meet with future colleagues as essential factors of personnel selection. Barrett-Howard & Tyler's (1986) study found that consistency was the most important factor within interpersonal relationships. Their results, as well as supporting Leventhal's theory, also highlighted a different emphasis on procedural rules across settings. Namely, bias-suppression and accuracy are the most important rules in formal situations.

The proactive-process theories of organisational justice are an important facet of justice literature. One of the major problems with reactive-content

theories is their failure to predict how people will react in a given situation. Allocation Preference Theory and the Justice Judgement Model have made progress in this area. Furthermore, it is especially important to focus on both distributions and procedures without ignoring that both aspects have a different psychological status. Allocation Preference Theory incorporates both of these from a multi-dimensional approach and thus is undoubtedly superior to its counterparts.

LEADERSHIP THEORIES

TRAIT AND SKILL THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

One of the very earliest approaches to leadership was the Trait Approach. Influenced strongly by Galton's (1869) work on the hereditary backgrounds of great men, the Trait Approach attempted to identify the key characteristics that made a successful and effective leader.

Stogdill's Trait Review

Stogdill (1948) conducted a comprehensive survey of 24 trait studies carried out between 1904 - 1948, and later in 1974, he produced a further review of 163 studies carried out between 1949 - 1970.

Although certain traits were associated with leadership effectiveness, Stogdill found that there was considerable variation across situations. There did not appear to be specific traits that would guarantee the emergence of an effective leader. As Yukl (1981) identified, from the review of studies it was

evident that a leader with certain traits could be effective in one situation and ineffective in another. Furthermore two leaders with different traits could be equally effective in the same situation. Traits alone would not guarantee the success of a leader.

Nevertheless, after reviewing these more recent studies Stogdill(1974) suggested that,

"a leader is characterised by a strong drive for responsibility and task completion, vigour and persistence in pursuit of goals, venturesomeness and originality in problem solving, drive to exercise initiative in social situations, self confidence and sense of personal identity, willingness to accept consequences of decision and action, readiness to absorb interpersonal stress, willingness to tolerate frustration and delay, ability to influence other's behaviour and capacity to structure social interaction systems to the purpose at hand" (pg.81).

Managerial Skills

Particular skills have been found to be relevant to leader success. Katz (1955) and Mann (1965) identified three general skills; technical, human and conceptual. Technical skills are primarily concerned with methods, processes and procedures, human skills with people and conceptual skills with ideas and concepts (Yukl 1981). Although they can be developed separately, all skills are important and each is relevant to the role of an effective administrator or leader. However the relative importance of each within a particular role is dependent on the characteristics of the situation.

Mann's (1965) research presented data from ongoing organisational field studies focusing on the supervisory role. The findings suggested and supported that these three classes of skills were required by supervisors across different settings. And, in addition, leadership was seen as a highly relative process where an emphasis on specific skills could be required at different levels within an organisation as well as at different times of an organisation's life.

BEHAVIOURAL THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

Ohio State Leadership Studies

The Ohio State Leadership Studies, initiated in the 1940's, were principally concerned with examining and measuring leader behaviour and performance. The methodological approach of these studies centered on questionnaires developed by researchers to enable the description of a leader's behaviour by subordinates, supervisors and also peers.

These questionnaires were administered to a large sample of people in a variety of organisations. Nonetheless even across different settings with different leaders, two major factors of 'initiating structure' and 'consideration' were emerging (Halpin & Winer 1957, Fleishman 1953, Stogdill et al 1957).

CONSIDERATION: Items associated with consideration were friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth. More specifically it is the degree to which a leader shows concern and gives support to subordinates. Examples of these types of behaviours include being friendly and approachable, consulting subordinates on important matters before going ahead, finding time to listen

to subordinates problems, and treating a subordinate like an equal (Halpin & Winer 1957).

INITIATING STRUCTURE: This is concerned with the degree to which a leader organises, structures and defines both his/her own role and the roles he/she expects subordinates to assume in order to obtain the group's goals. Examples of these items measuring this behaviour style include maintaining definite standards of performance, letting subordinates know what is expected of them, offering new approaches to problems and seeing that subordinates are working up to capacity (Halpin & Winer 1957).

These two principle factors, 'consideration' and 'initiating structure', were found to be relatively independent. Leaders could be high on one and low on the other or high or low on both.

The Ohio State Leadership Studies focused on the development and validation of two questionnaires. Primarily the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) (Hemphill & Coons 1957) and the Supervisory Behaviour Description Questionnaire (SBDQ) (Fleishman 1957). Many studies were carried out to test how these behaviours related to other determinants of leader effectiveness, such as subordinate satisfaction, performance and motivation. Results of these studies have been somewhat inconclusive and inconsistent (eg. Holloman 1967, Korman 1966, Yukl 1981, Yukl 1971). In a review Korman (1966) discussed five major shortcomings of the consideration - initiating structure literature. He concluded,

"There is as yet almost no evidence on the predictive validity of consideration and initiating structure" (pg. 360).

In a later analysis, Kerr & Schriesheim (1974) readdressed Korman's critique and concluded that several of the mentioned shortcomings have been addressed and partially resolved. There were however still some psychometric difficulties that had not been resolved. For example, the use of correlational analysis is useful in establishing if a relationship exists between leader behaviour and subordinate outcomes, but does not identify causality. Thus little is known about the types of conditions under which leader behaviour is the cause of subordinate outcomes nor those conditions in which the leader's behaviour is the result of the subordinates behaviour and performance (Kerr & Schriesheim 1974). Research dealing with this issue has provided results to demonstrate that causality is reciprocal (Herold 1977, Lowin & Craig 1968, Pfeffer & Salancik 1975). Nevertheless, a fairly consistent finding in the literature is that subordinates are more satisfied with a leader high or moderately high on 'consideration' (Wexley & Yukl 1984). However preference differences between groups within organisations have been found (Stinson & Robertson 1973).

Behavioural Taxonomies

An important line of research into the behavioural aspects of leadership has been the move towards developing a taxonomy of effective leader behaviours. Various researchers have produced behavioural taxonomies since the Ohio State Leadership Studies (eg. Bass & Valenzi 1974, Bowers & Seashore 1966, House & Dessler 1974, Morse & Wagner 1978, Stogdill 1974, Yukl 1981). There has however been little agreement across studies. For example Bowers & Seashore produced a four factor theory of leadership behaviour in 1966 and more recently Yukl (1981) has developed a nineteen behaviour category taxonomy.

Bowers & Seashore 1966

Bowers & Seashore's theory was based on a review and conceptualisation that much of the content of leader behaviour research could be re-classified into four categories. These were defined as: (Bowers & Seashore 1966 pg.247),

1. **SUPPORT:** Behaviour that enhances someone else's feeling of personal worth and importance.
2. **INTERACTION FACILITATION:** Behaviour that encourages members of the group to develop close, mutually satisfying relationships.
3. **GOAL EMPHASIS:** Behaviour that stimulates an enthusiasm for meeting the group's goals or achieving excellent performance.
4. **WORK FACILITATION:** Behaviour that helps achieve goal attainment by such activities as scheduling, coordinating, planning and by providing resources such as tools, materials and technical knowledge.

Bowers & Seashore's (1966) paper was one of the first that emphasised the importance of subordinate behaviour as well as intervening variables. They conducted a correlational study of the four-factor theory in forty agencies of a life insurance company. This study aimed at investigating the relationship between the four behaviour categories shown by leaders and the effectiveness of the agency. Questionnaires were administered to both managers and subordinates and correlated with intervening and end result measures. In general the results supported the four-factor theory. For example, business costs were lower for agencies when both managers and subordinates were rated high on work facilitation. Also, agencies with managers rated high on goal emphasis behaviour had a high dollar volume of sales.

Unfortunately, however, as mentioned previously, correlations do not show causality. Nevertheless some important findings and implications were presented in the theory. Two of these are the importance of both managerial and subordinate characteristics, and the possible effect of intervening constructs such as work patterns or personal characteristics.

Yukl 1981

A more recent programme of research into developing a taxonomy of leader behaviour has been carried out by Yukl and his colleagues (Yukl 1981, Yukl & Nemeroff 1979, Yukl & Van Fleet 1982).

Wexley & Yukl (1984) present the most recent list of behaviours taken from a paper presented by Yukl in 1982. This list redefines some of the previous categories. One important change is the integration of 'coordinating' to the 'planning' behaviour. In addition a further five behavioural categories are added. The categories in the taxonomy are presented in Table 1.

Table 1 Definitions of Managerial Behaviours in Yukl's Taxonomy.

Performance emphasis: the extent to which a leader emphasises the importance of subordinate performance and encourages subordinates to make a maximum effort.
Role Clarification: the extent to which a leader informs subordinates about their duties and responsibilities, clarifies rules and policies, and lets subordinates know what is expected of them.
Training-Coaching: the extent to which a leader provides any necessary training and coaching to subordinates, or arranges for others to provide it.
Goal Setting: the extent to which a leader, either alone or jointly with a subordinate, sets specific, challenging, but realistic performance goals for each important aspect of the subordinate's job.
Planning: the extent to which a leader plans in advance how to efficiently organise, and schedule the work, coordinate work unit activities, accomplish task objectives, and avoid or cope with potential problems.
Innovating: the extent to which a leader looks for new opportunities for the work unit to exploit, proposes new activities to undertake, and offers innovative ideas for strengthening the work unit.

Problem solving: the extent to which a leader takes prompt and decisive action to deal with serious work related problems and disturbances.
Work facilitation: the extent to which a leader provides subordinates with any supplies, equipment, support services, and other resources necessary to do their work effectively.
Monitoring operations: the extent to which a leader keeps informed about the activities within his/her work unit and checks on the performance of subordinates.
External monitoring: the extent to which a leader keeps informed about outside events that have important implications for his/her work unit.
Information dissemination: the extent to which a leader keeps subordinates informed about decisions, events, and developments that affect their work.
Discipline: the extent to which a leader takes appropriate disciplinary action to deal with a subordinate who violates a rule, disobeys an order, or has consistently poor performance.
Representation: the extent to which a leader promotes and defends the interests of his/her work unit and takes appropriate action to obtain necessary resources and support for the work unit from superiors, peers and outsiders.
Consideration: the extent to which a leader is friendly, supportive and considerate in his/her behaviour toward subordinates.
Career counselling and facilitation: the extent to which a leader offers helpful advice to subordinates on how to advance their careers, encourages them to develop their skills, and otherwise aids their professional development.
Inspiration: the extent to which a leader stimulates enthusiasm among subordinates for the work of the group, and says things to build their confidence in the group's ability to successfully attain its objectives.
Praise recognition: the extent to which a leader provides the appropriate praise and recognition to subordinates with effective performance, and shows appreciation for special efforts and contributions made by subordinates.
Structuring reward contingencies: the extent to which a leader rewards effective subordinate performance with tangible benefits such as a pay increase, promotion, better assignments, better work schedule, extra time off, etc.
Decision participation: the extent to which a leader consults with subordinates before making work-related decisions, and otherwise allows subordinates to influence his/her decisions.
Autonomy delegation: the extent to which a leader delegates responsibility and authority to subordinates and allows them discretion in determining how to do their work.
Interaction facilitation: the extent to which a leader emphasises teamwork and tries to promote cooperation, cohesiveness, and identification with the group.
Conflict management: the extent to which a leader discourages unnecessary fighting and bickering among subordinates, and helps them to settle conflicts and disagreements in a constructive manner.
Constructive Criticism: the extent to which a leader criticises subordinate mistakes and poor performance in a constructive calm, and helpful manner.

Source: Wexley K N & Yukl G A (1984) Organisational Behaviour and Personnel Psychology, Illinois; Irwin Inc. pg. 172-173.

Although Yukl's taxonomy appears to be rather detailed and specific there is some evidence to suggest that it is more applicable than the broader groups of consideration and initiating structure (Halpin & Winer 1957), or the four-factor theory (Bowers & Seashore 1966). Yukl & Van Fleet (1982) analysed the

behaviour patterns of effective military leaders. The results of their study demonstrated that there are considerable advantages and benefits from using more specific groups.

Blake & Mouton's Managerial Grid

Blake & Mouton (1964) conceptualised leadership in the form of a Managerial Grid (Fig. 1).

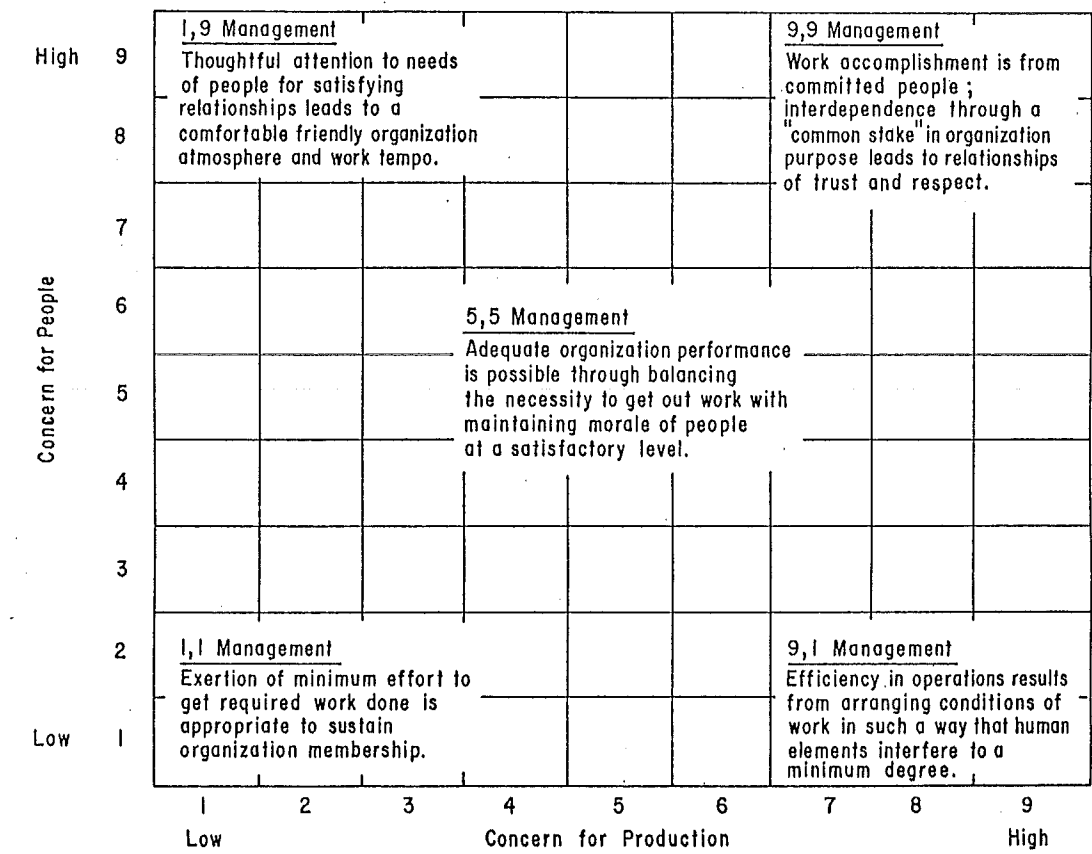


Figure 1 Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid.
(Source: Blake, R.R. and Mouton, J.S. (1964) *The Managerial Grid*. Houston: Gulf Publishing Co. pg. 10.)

There are two basic dimensions of the Grid, 'concern for people' and 'concern for production'. Both are similar to the concepts of 'consideration' and 'initiating structure'. 'Concern for people' is portrayed on the vertical axis and 'concern for production' on the horizontal. Figure 1 shows that there are various possibilities for management style. That is, a leader can be high or low on either or both dimensions. An ideal leader, according to Blake & Mouton, is one who scores a 9,9. This type of leader is one who is able to coordinate the facilitation of group goals by addressing the subordinate's basic need to be involved and committed to productive work. Goal setting and encouraging team action are key behaviours that help group effectiveness.

The Blake & Mouton analysis of leadership is primarily concerned with organisational development procedures and the training of managers. However the underlying principle of the grid is that effective leadership comes from behaviour. Furthermore, although they emphasize the flexibility of leadership behaviour, the theory assumes that a dominant behavioural style will prevail. This is not however at the exclusion of other styles, as behaviour may change with the situation and may also be acquired with an organisational development programme (Blake & Mouton 1964).

Mintzberg's Ten Managerial Roles

Mintzberg (1973) reviewed earlier relevant studies on leader behaviour and concluded that there was a lack of theory and research focusing on what a manager *actually* does. He therefore tried to overcome this deficit and carried out a study using unstructured observation of managerial activities. He developed behavioural categories both during and after the initial

observation (Ref. Table 2).

Mintzberg thus proposed a set of ten underlying managerial roles of leader behaviour (Table 2). Each activity that Mintzberg observed could be explained in terms of at least one role. Three of these roles deal with interpersonal behaviour (figurehead, leader, liaison), three with information processing (monitor, disseminator, spokesman), and the other four with decision making (entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator, negotiator). The role and activities of a manager are largely determined by his/her position, but are also flexible to enable individual interpretation. Furthermore, the relative importance of each role may vary from one manager to another (Mintzberg 1973).

Little research has been carried out using these managerial roles. Wexley & Yukl (1984) maintain that the roles provide an accurate description of leader behaviour but do little in helping explain or identify effective leader behaviour. They claim that little success has been achieved in studies aimed at relating the roles to group performance and cite a study by McCall & Segrist (1980) that found evidence for the validity of only six of the ten roles.

Bass's Transformational and Transactional Leadership

One of the most recent leadership theories has been proposed by Bass (1985). He made a distinction between two types of leadership style; 'transformational' and 'transactional'. Transactional leaders recognise and clarify the role and task requirements of the subordinates and provide contingent reinforcement to motivate them to achieve their goals.

Table 2 Mintzberg's Summary of Ten Roles.

Role	Description
Interpersonal	
Figurehead	Symbolic head; obliged to perform a number of routine duties of a legal or social nature
Leader	Responsible for the motivation and activation of subordinates; responsible for staffing, training, and associated duties.
Liaison	Maintains self-developed network of outside contacts and informers who provide favours and information.
Informational	
Monitor	Seeks and receives wide variety of special information (much of it current) to develop thorough understanding of organisational and environment; emerges as nerve center of internal and external information of the organisation.
Disseminator	Transmits information received from outsiders or from other subordinates to members of the organisation; some information factual, some involving interpretation and integration of diverse value positions of organisational influencers.
Spokesman	Transmits information to outsiders on organisation's plans, policies, actions, results, etc.; serves as expert on organisation's industry.
Decisional	
Entrepreneur	Searches organisation and its environment for opportunities and initiates "improvements projects" to bring about change; supervises designs of certain changes as well.
Disturbance Handler	Responsible for corrective action when organisation faces important, unexpected disturbances.
Resource Allocator	Responsible for the allocation of organisational resources of all kinds - in effect the making or approval of all significant organisational decisions.
Negotiator	Responsible for representing the organisation at major negotiations.

Source: adapted from Mintzberg H (1973) *The Nature of Managerial Work*, New York, Harper Row pg, 92-93.

Transformational leaders raise the confidence levels of subordinates to motivate them to perform beyond their expectations.

In a factorial study, Bass (1985) identified three factors as dimensions of Transformational Leadership; 'charisma', 'individualised consideration' and 'intellectual stimulation', and two factors as dimensions of Transactional Leadership; 'contingent reward' and 'management-by-exception'. All of the transformational factors and the 'contingent reward' factor are active leader behaviours. 'Management-by-exception' is presented as a passive dimension. Not all leaders will be completely transactional or transformational throughout their lifetime. There is scope for a leader to show both aspects at different times of a career.

Much of the identification of leaders using Bass's dichotomy, comes from subordinates' perceptions. A leader who was rated high on each of the five factors would indicate the following (Avolio & Bass 1985):

CHARISMA: The leader instills pride, faith and respect, has a gift for seeing what is really important, and has a sense of mission (or vision) which is effectively articulated.

INDIVIDUALISED CONSIDERATION: The leader delegates projects to stimulate and create learning experiences, pays personal attention to follower's needs, especially those who seem neglected, and treats each follower with respect and as an individual.

INTELLECTUAL STIMULATION: The leader provides ideas which result in a rethinking of old ways, the leader enables followers to look at problems from many angles and to resolve problems that are at a standstill.

CONTINGENT REWARD: The leader is seen as frequently telling subordinates what to do to achieve a desired reward for his/her efforts.

MANAGEMENT-BY-EXCEPTION: The leader is seen as avoiding giving directions if the old ways are working and allowing the subordinate to continue doing his/her job as always as long as performance goals are met.

As with many of the other leadership theories, research on Bass's Transformational/Transactional Leadership has focused on correlating leader scores with a measure of perceived effectiveness, such as group performance or job satisfaction (eg. Singer 1985). In Singer's study, 38 New Zealand company managers gave two ratings of leadership, one of a real leader and one of an ideal leader. The results showed that for ratings of a real leader, mean ratings of Transformational Leadership were more highly correlated with leader effectiveness and subordinate satisfaction than those on the transactional factors. She also found that the managers preferred working with transformational leaders. Consistent with this, an additional study by Singer & Singer (1986) using student subjects, also found a preference for working with leaders who are more transformational than transactional.

As Bass's model is still very recent there are many aspects that still need addressing. For example, does preference for a transformational leader hold across situations and subgroups of an organisation, and if so what role should a transactional leader hold in the future? Researchers have already begun to investigate such aspects, (Avolio & Bass 1985, Singer 1985, Singer & Singer 1986) and without doubt the Transformational/Transactional Model promises to play a prominent role in future leadership research and literature.

INTERACTION THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

The final group of theoretical approaches to be discussed is often referred to as situational theories (Bass 1981, Wexley & Yukl 1984, Yukl 1981). There are however researchers who propose strict situational theories that place little emphasis on leader personality or characteristics. Murphy (1941) for example, maintains that,

"leadership does not reside in a person. It is a function of the whole situation" (pg.674).

Thus, this review will refer to the following theories as interaction theories as they are an integration of the leader, the subordinate and the situation.

Fiedler's Contingency Model of Leadership

Fiedler's Contingency Model (1967) is one of the best known interaction theories. Fiedler tried to predict leadership effectiveness in terms of a measure of attitudes called the Least Preferred Co-worker, LPC, score. The approach specified the type of situation in which a leader scoring high or low on the LPC measure would be most effective. Implicit in this theory is the understanding that the appropriateness of leadership style is contingent on the situation. (Ref Fig. 2).

The LPC score is rated on an eight point bipolar scale using semantic differentials such as pleasant - unpleasant, gloomy - cheerful. The leader thinks of all the people he/she has worked with, past and present, and rates the person with whom he/she worked the least well. A leader scoring very

low on the LPC scale is one who is critical of this worker and a high LPC score indicates a more lenient rating.

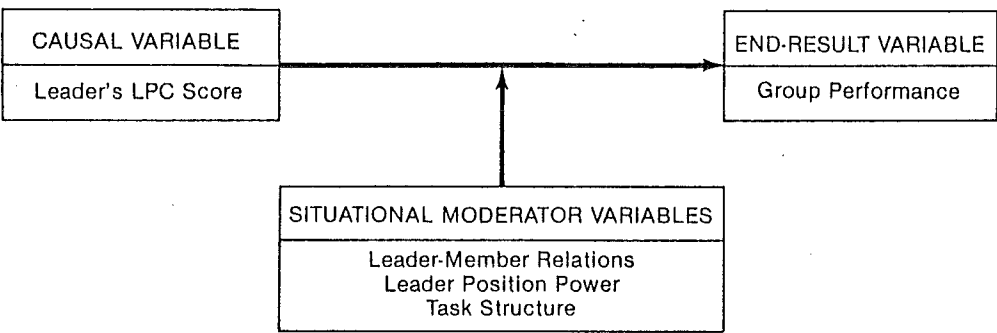


Figure 2 Causal Relationships in Fiedler's Contingency Theory.
(Source: Yukl , G.A. (1981) *Leadership in Organizations*. Englewood Cliffs, New York: Prentice-Hall Inc. pg. 137.

Interpretation of the LPC has changed several times. Fiedler's (1971, 1972) interpretation was in terms of a leader's motivational hierachy. A leader with a high LPC score is primarily motivated to work in a social environment with good interpersonal relationships. Likewise a leader with a low LPC score is primarily motivated to work in a task oriented situation.

Rice (1978) reviewed years of research using the LPC scale and he found that there was much evidence in the literature to support a value-attitude interpretation. Namely, that high LPC scorers value personal success relatively more than low LPC persons, and that low LPC scorers value task achievement relatively more than high LPC persons. Basically this interpretation is in accord with Fiedler's motive hierarchy however, it holds more support and is perhaps more parsimonious (Yukl 1981).

In addition to leader LPC scores, the Contingency Model takes into account the favourability of the situation. Fiedler defines situation favourability in terms of the amount of control and influence over subordinates the situation allows for the leader. This control or favourability is measured in terms of three variables, 'the leader-member relations' (loyalty and support from subordinates), 'position power' (the power to punish or reward) and 'task structure' (clarity of goals and procedures). Situational dimensions are moderator variables. The LPC score is the causal variable, moderated by the above situational aspects, with an end result of group performance (Wexley & Yukl 1984). The situation is seen as most favourable when leader - member relations are good, the leader has high position power and the task is highly structured.

Although there have been some supporting evidence for these propositions, a number of critics have also questioned the validity of the theory. A major criticism is that the relative importance of situational variables has been determined in an arbitrary fashion (Shiflett 1973), and that the possibility of change is not accounted for (Graen et al 1970). Ashour (1973), in analysing the underlying scheme of the theory, maintained that the model is not really a theory as it does not explain the causal effect of a leader's LPC score to group performance. A further criticism is that many of the correlational results from research on the model have produced inconsistent results (McMahon 1972, Graen et al 1970).

Fielder (1971, 1972, 1973) has addressed most of these issues. However the debate continues. Hopefully with more research the controversies pertaining to the validity of this Contingency Model of Leadership will be resolved.

Path-Goal Theory of Leadership

Evans (1970) developed a nonsituational model of a Path-Goal Theory designed to explain how a leader's behaviour effects a subordinates motivation and satisfaction. House (1971) elaborated on this and extended the model to include situation variables. The theory is called Path-Goal as it focuses on the influence a leader's behaviour has on the subordinate's perceptions of both their work and personal goals and the paths to attaining these goals (House & Mitchell 1974).

The function of the leader is to motivate the subordinate to achieve his/her goals by increasing personal pay-offs, clarifying the paths to the goals, reducing obstacles and pitfalls and increasing the opportunity for personal satisfaction along the way (House 1971). A leader should thus provide the subordinate with guidance, counselling, advice and assistance not otherwise provided by the organisation. In effecting a subordinate's satisfaction, a leader's behaviour will be viewed as acceptable to the extent the subordinates perceive it to be instrumental to their immediate or future satisfaction (House & Dessler 1974).

However also implicit in the theory is that the effect a leader's behaviour will have on subordinate satisfaction or motivation is dependent on the situation. Characteristics of the situation are moderating variables influencing the potential relationship between leader and subordinate. Situation variables also in turn influence appropriate leader behaviours.

House & Mitchell (1974) define four categories of leader behaviour;

1. **DIRECTIVE BEHAVIOR:** involves giving guidance to subordinates, making them aware of what is expected of them and coordinating work to be done.
2. **SUPPORTIVE BEHAVIOR:** involves developing a friendly work atmosphere and showing concern for subordinates needs.
3. **PARTICIPATIVE BEHAVIOR:** involves consulting with subordinates and listening to their opinions and suggesting when making decisions.
4. **ACHIEVEMENT ORIENTED BEHAVIOR:** involves setting goals, emphasising performance improvement, and showing confidence in subordinates.

Directive leadership will help to reduce role ambiguity, supportive leadership will increase motivation and satisfaction if the task is stressful, tedious or boring, achievement oriented leadership will give subordinates more confidence and participative leadership will increase motivation when the task is unstructured.

Reviews of the Path-Goal Theory have yielded mixed results (House & Mitchell 1974, Schriesheim & Von Glinow 1977). Such inconsistency in research has been attributed to serious methodological problems (Yukl 1981). Numerous writers have addressed these problems and refined and extended the theory (House & Dessler 1974, House & Mitchell 1974, Stinson & Johnson 1975). For example, Stinson & Johnson (1975) found contradictory results from predictions of the theory and thus gave a more detailed set of behavioural conditions that would increase motivation and satisfaction under a larger group of situations. Fulk and Wendler (1982) also extended the Path-Goal theory to include a broader range of leader behaviours and subordinate variables and did find support for the underlying premises of the theory. Thus although some conceptual problems have occurred with

the theory it has made a contribution to the understanding of how a leader's behaviour may influence subordinate satisfaction and motivation.

Vroom-Yetton Model of Leadership

Using appropriate decision procedures is an important aspect of the leader role. In making decisions a leader must take into account both the quality of the procedure as well as the likelihood of subordinate satisfaction (Maier 1963). Vroom & Yetton (1973) developed a normative model of decision participation based on these two dimensions of quality and subordinate satisfaction, both of which are intervening variables affecting subordinate performance. Decision quality refers to the objective aspect of the decision and decision acceptance refers to the degree of subordinate commitment to the decision (Wexley & Yukl 1984).

According to this model there are a number of aspects of the situation that affect the appropriateness of a particular decision procedure. These include the relevant amount of information possessed by the leader and subordinates, the importance of decision quality and acceptance, the likelihood that subordinates will accept an autocratic decision, the likelihood that subordinates will cooperate in trying to make a good decision if allowed to participate, and the amount of disagreement among subordinates with respect to their preferred alternatives. Vroom & Yetton's model provides set rules and guidelines to help managers and leaders to determine which decision procedure to use. There are five decision making procedures given in the model ranging from 'solving the problem yourself' to 'sharing the problem with your subordinates as a group'. Choosing a procedure is done through decision-process flow charts (Ref. Fig. 3).

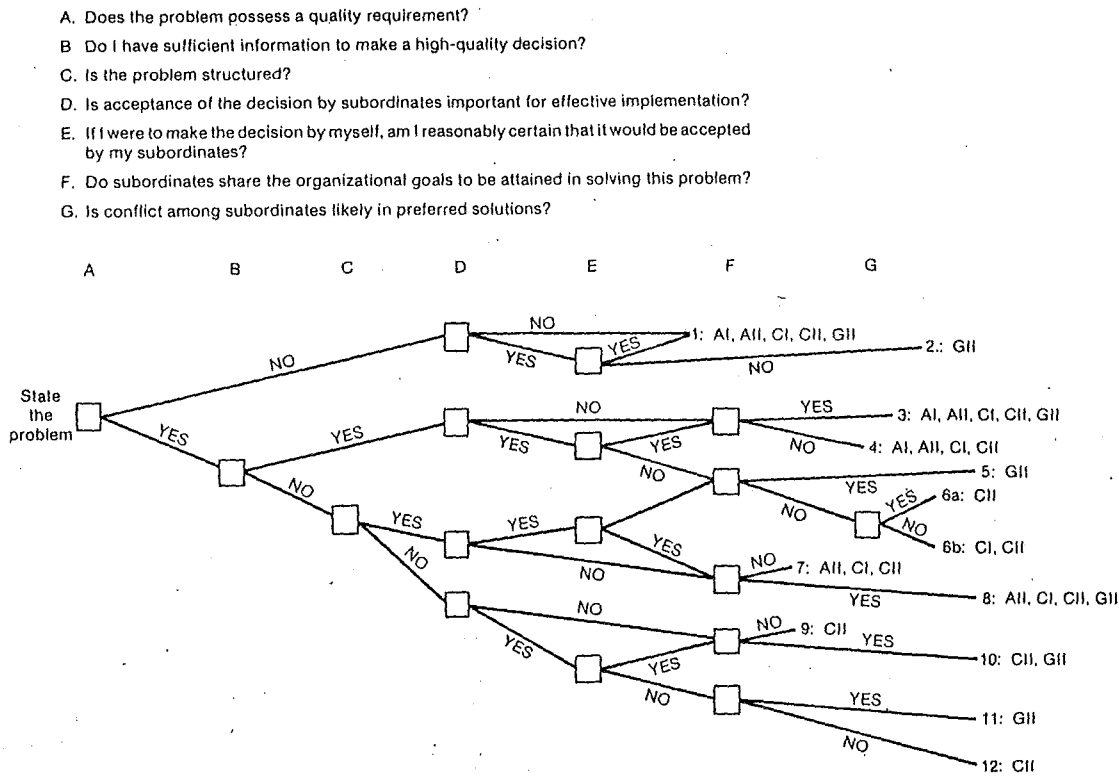


Figure 3 Vroom and Yetton Decision Process Flowchart.

(Source: Wexley, K.N. and Yukl, G.A. (1984) *Organizational Behavior and Personnel Psychology*. U.S.A.: Irwin Inc. pg. 186.)

This particular flow chart has seven yes/no questions. Depending on the answers to these questions one of the five procedures, or several, will be indicated as most feasible and appropriate for a particular decision.

Few studies have investigated the validity of the Vroom-Yetton Model. The principle effort in validating the model has involved analysing procedures used in good and bad decisions made by managers with the guidelines suggested in the model. A study by Vroom & Jago (1978) investigated the validity of the model using this method. 96 managers from a variety of

organisation and 181 decision making situations were analysed. In general there was support for the model. Much of the validity however stemmed from the relationship between agreement with the model and subordinate acceptance. Relationship with decision quality were much smaller. There does however appear to be a consensus that the Vroom-Yetton Model is a promising development in leadership theory (Wexley & Yukl 1984, Yukl 1981).

Yukl's Multiple Linkage Model of Leader Effectiveness

In 1971 Yukl proposed a metatheory of leader effectiveness called the Multiple Linkage Model. This version was somewhat simplistic and a more sophisticated theory was developed by Yukl again in 1981. The Multiple Linkage Model was one of the first models that explicitly incorporated intervening variables as well as dealing with a large number of leader behaviours. The model identifies that the relationship between a leader's behaviour and group performance is modified by specific intervening variables and that the relative importance of these variables is dependent on the situation. A leader will not be effective if he/she can not recognise the presence of these variables.

There are seven specific intervening variables; (Yukl 1981 pg.154)

1. **SUBORDINATE EFFORT:** The extent to which subordinates make an effort to attain a high level of performance and show a high degree of personal responsibility and commitment toward achieving the work unit's goals and objectives.
2. **SUBORDINATE ROLE CLARITY:** The extent to which subordinates understand their job duties and responsibilities and know what is

expected of them.

3. **SUBORDINATE TASK SKILLS:** The extent to which subordinates have the experience, training and skills necessary to perform all aspects of their job effectively.
4. **RESOURCES AND SUPPORT SERVICES:** The extent to which subordinates are able to obtain the tools, equipment, supplies and support services needed to do their jobs.
5. **TASK-ROLE ORGANIZATION:** The extent to which the work unit is effectively organized to ensure efficient utilisation of personnel, equipment and facilities, and the avoidance of delays, duplication of effort and wasted effort.
6. **GROUP COHESIVENESS AND TEAMWORK:** The extent to which subordinates get along well with each other, share information and ideas and are friendly, helpful, considerate and cooperative.
7. **LEADER -SUBORDINATE RELATIONS:** The extent to which subordinates get along well with their leaders, are friendly toward him/her, are comfortable working for him/her and are satisfied with him/her.

In addition there are three types of situational variables. The first type directly influences one or more of the intervening variables and thus indirectly influences group performance. For example, two variables that may effect subordinate effort are the reward system of the organisation and intrinsic motivating potential of the task (Yukl 1981). That is, greater effort from a subordinate is likely if he/she perceives that the administration of rewards or punishments is determined by performance and not in a random manner. The second type of situational variable effects how important each intervening variable is in a given situation. For example, in a job where

technology has reduced skill requirements and replaced human energy, the importance of subordinate effort or task skill is reduced. The final situational variable is any formal organisational constraint that is placed on the leader's behaviour. These sort of variables include the power the leader has over the reward system, the particular work assignments of the group or the amount of authority the leader has over providing the necessary tools, equipment and support services. Causal relationships in this Multiple Linkage Model are explained in Figure 4.

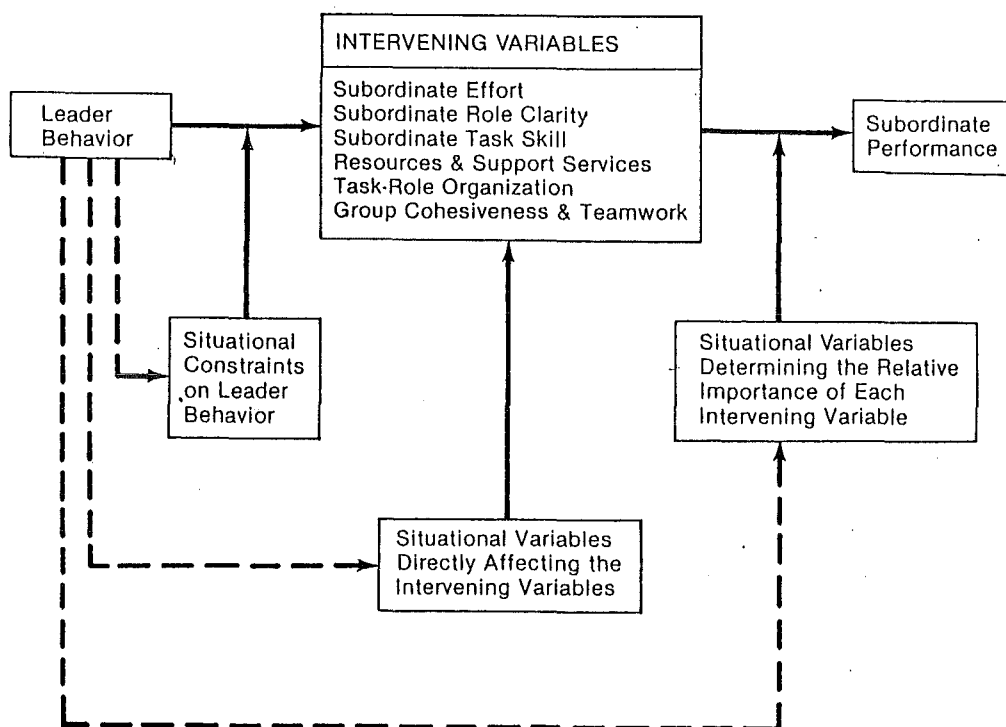


Figure 4 Causal Relationships in the Multiple Linkage Model.

(Source: Yukl G.A. (1981) *Leadership in Organizations*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc. pg. 161.)

There are two basic principles of the Multiple Linkage Model. Firstly, in the short term a leader's effectiveness will depend on how skillfully he/she can correct any deficiencies or problems in the intervening variables. In a given situation certain intervening variables will be important. If a leader does not address these important variables and maintain them at a given standard or level then he/she will not be optimally effective. The second principle involves long-term action. The Multiple Linkage Model does not view the leadership role as static or unchanging, instead the leader is able to change situational variables to achieve a more favourable work environment (Yukl 1981). By changing these situational variables the leader also influences the relevant intervening variables. The potential action of this type of leader behaviour is represented by dotted lines in Figure 4.

The Multiple Linkage Model is not yet an elaborate formal theory (Wexley & Yukl 1984). The model does however provide a very comprehensive analysis of the relationship between leader behaviour and group performance. None of the other models or theories discussed so far have incorporated as much detail into a formal structure. Thus, although in need of validation, the Multiple Linkage Model is a promising approach in understanding the role and influence of an effective leader.

Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory

Hersey and Blanchard's (1972, 1977, 1982) interaction theory of leadership is referred to as the Situational Leadership Theory. Emphasis in this theory is placed on the subordinates (followers). Hersey and Blanchard maintain that followers have the ability to either accept or reject the leader and ultimately determine the limit of his/her personal authority and effectiveness.

The theory concentrates on two dimensions of leader behaviour, and one situational moderator variable, 'follower maturity'. The two categories of leader behaviour are: (Hersey & Blanchard 1982 pg.96).

1. **TASK BEHAVIOR:** The extent to which leaders are likely to organize and define the roles of the members of their group (followers); to explain what activities each is to do and when, where and how tasks are to be accomplished; characterised by endeavouring to establish well defined patterns of organizational channels of communication, and ways of getting jobs accomplished.
2. **RELATIONSHIP BEHAVIOR:** The extent to which leaders are likely to maintain personal relationships between themselves and members of their group (followers) by opening up channels of communication, providing socioemotional support, "psychological strokes" and facilitating behaviors.

These two behaviour types correspond to the 'consideration' and 'initiating structure' dimensions of the Ohio State Leadership studies.

Follower maturity is defined as "the ability and willingness of people to take responsibility for directing their own behaviour" (Hersey & Blanchard 1982 pg.151), and can be broken down into two categories of high and low.

The basic concept of the Situational Leadership Theory is that the particular leadership behaviour that is appropriate in a given situation is dependent on the level of follower maturity. Figure 5 portrays the appropriate styles of leadership as the follower moves through levels of maturity. Each style 'delegating', 'participating', 'selling' and 'telling' is a combination of both task and relationship behaviour.

DELEGATING is for people of high maturity who are able and willing, or confident to take responsibility. The leader provides little direction or support and followers can 'run the show'.

PARTICIPATING is for people of moderate to high maturity who are able but unwilling to take responsibility. Thus the leader provides high relationship behaviour but does not need to provide direction. Increasing the followers confidence and motivating are of most importance.

SELLING is for people of low to moderate maturity. These people are willing but unable to take responsibility as they lack the necessary skills. The leader then provides directive behaviour and support to maintain their willingness and motivation.

TELLING is for people of low maturity. These people are both unable and unwilling to take task responsibility. They require highly directive leadership but low relationship behaviour is given to avoid reinforcing poor performance.

To be able to identify which behaviour style is appropriate, the leader must be able to assess the maturity of the followers. One possible way is in terms of the maturity/immaturity continuum of Agyris (1964). A follower thus would gain maturity with time as they move for example from passive states to states of increasing activity, dependency on others to independency and inexperience to an increasing sense of competence. Hersey & Blanchard (1982) suggest breaking maturity down into two aspects; 'job or task relevant maturity' (the ability to do something; knowledge and skills), and 'psychological maturity' (the willingness and motivation to do something)). These two dimensions are more parsimonious with the Situational Leadership Theory and emphasise psychological rather than chronological maturity.

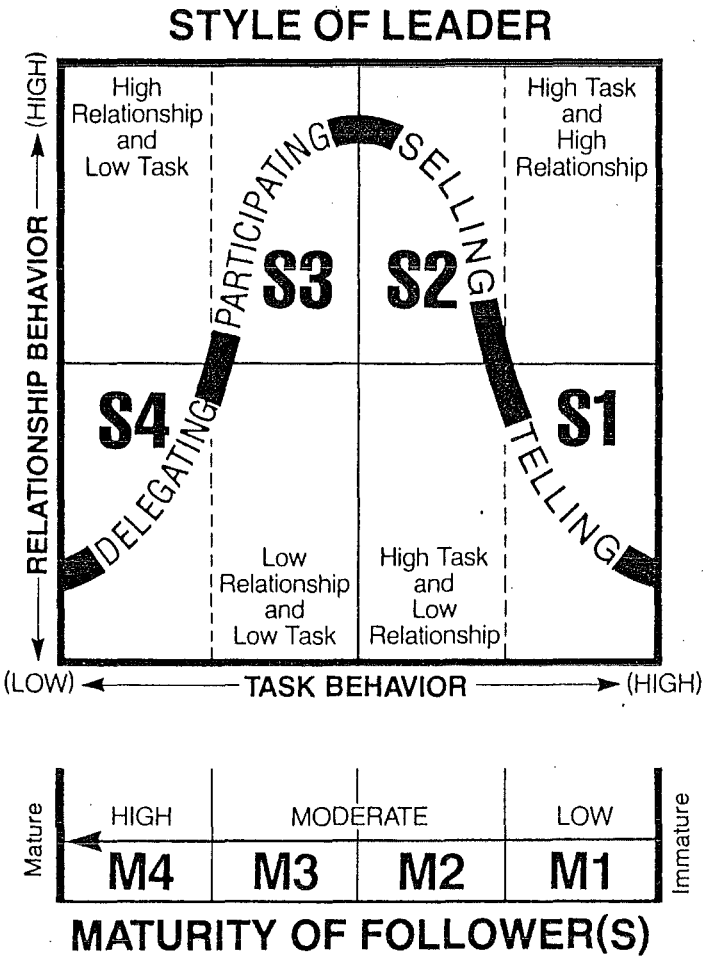


Figure 5 Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model.
(Source: Hersey, P. and Blanchard, K. H. (1982) *Management of Organizational Behavior*. 4th Edition. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall Inc. pg. 152.)

A recent empirical investigation by Vecchio (1987) found only partial support for the validity of the theory. The results suggested that more recently hired employees, or low maturity followers, require more structuring from their superior. However it was unclear as to what leadership style worked best for moderate or high maturity followers.

Vecchio concluded that the theory was not suitable for making predictions of appropriate leadership styles for all employees.

At a theoretical level Graeff (1983) has provided a critique of the theory. A major flaw in the theory is with the ambiguity of the term task-relevant maturity (Graeff 1983, Yukl 1981). Yukl (1981) is particularly concerned with the broadness of the categories of leader behaviour and maturity. No distinction of behaviour within these dimensions can be made. Graeff (1983) extends this criticism by suggesting that the graphic presentation of a four dimension model of task behaviour, relationship behaviour, maturity and leader effectiveness on two dimensions is conceptually problematic.

Despite its deficiencies there are some redeeming features of the Situational Leadership Theory. Among these are the emphasis on leader behaviour (Yukl 1981), the recognition of the subordinate as a vital component of leader effectiveness (Graeff 1983), and the recognition of the necessity to treat the subordinate differently as the situation changes (Yukl 1981).

Fiedler's Cognitive Resources Theory of Leadership

The importance of cognitive variables in the leadership process have thus far, virtually been ignored. For example, Mann (1965) discussed leadership in terms of managerial skills, and McClelland & Miner talk about managerial motivation. Others look at leadership in terms of behaviour (Bass 1984, Blake & Mouton 1964, Bowers & Seashore 1966, Halpin & Winer 1957, Mintzberg 1973, Yukl 1981); decision making strategies (Vroom & Yetton 1973); or 'follower maturity' (Hersey & Blanchard 1982). Intellectual ability, technical competence and job relevant knowledge have not been

portrayed as good predictors of group performance (Bass 1981, Stogdill 1974).

However Fiedler (1986) pointed out that these cognitive variables are the most commonly used predictors of performance in selection and promotion procedures (see also Campbell et al 1970). He maintains that cognitive abilities and job relevant experience must play a more important role than is suggested by current leadership theories. The Cognitive Resources Theory addresses this void of literature on the importance of cognitive variables. The theory assumes that job relevant knowledge, technical competence and intellectual abilities determine potential leader effectiveness. There are certain conditions which influence the relative importance of each variable. Fiedler (1986) considered four propositions of the Cognitive Resources model and discussed previous empirical support for each relative hypothesis based on research by himself and his colleagues.

PROPOSITION 1 - The leader communicates plans, decisions and strategies in the form of directive behaviour. Hence,

Hypothesis 1: Relevant abilities of directive leaders correlate more highly with group performance when the leader is directive than when the leader is not directive.

PROPOSITION 2 - Leader abilities correlate with performance to the extent to which the leader's particular abilities are required by the task, (the leader's ability to play the piano will not help in coaching a football team). Hence,

Hypothesis 2: The leader's intelligence score correlates more highly with the performance of tasks which make intellectual demands than those which require non-intellectual abilities.

PROPOSITION 3 - Under conditions perceived by leaders as non stressful, the leaders intellectual abilities contribute more highly to the task than

they do under stressful conditions. Hence,

Hypothesis 3: Under conditions of low stress, the leader's intellectual abilities correlate with performance of tasks which require intellectual effort.

PROPOSITION 4 - Under stressful conditions leaders 'fall back' on previously learned skills, knowledge, and behaviour patterns generally defined as experience. Hence,

Hypothesis 4: Under conditions of high stress, the leader's tenure in the organisation (organisational experience) correlates positively with task performance.

Support for hypotheses one and three come from a study by Blades & Fiedler (1976, cited in Fiedler 1986) using 51 army mess halls. In this particular situation the leaders were stewards who supervised the work of 3-6 cooks as well as group members working on a day to day basis. Measures of directive supervisor behaviour, supervisor intelligence, group atmosphere and group performance were obtained. They found that the correlation between group performance and leader intelligence was significantly higher for directive than nondirective leaders. In addition the sample was further divided into two groups of high and low group atmosphere. A high score indicated a supportive group and a low score meant a nonsupportive group. This time the correlation was only significant when the leader was directive and the group was supportive. From this study there is evidence for both hypothesis one and three respectively.

Bons & Fiedler (1976) carried out a study based on 138 army infantry squad leaders, providing support for hypothesis two. They obtained ratings of intelligence, directiveness, task performance and personnel performance (eg. rapport with squad). Again the correlation between intelligence and task

performance was higher for directive leaders, but in addition there was a higher correlation between intelligence and task performance than for intelligence and personnel performance. Fiedler (1986) thus maintains that intellectual ability is more closely related to performance than personnel performance.

Finally a study by Frost (1983, cited in Fiedler 1986) looked at the effects of stressful and nonstressful situations on job performance in Fire Officers of high and low experience. A highly significant interaction effect was found. Under stressful conditions Officers with high experience had high performance and less experienced Officers performed less well. Interestingly, performance was low for experienced Officers in low stress environments. Possibly, as stress was measured by the number of hours in fire combat during the year, the experienced Officers found the job boring and lacking a challenge, which in turn is reflected in poor performance (Fiedler 1986).

So far, there is evidence to support the Cognitive Resources Model. Intellectual ability effects the performance of a group when the leader is directive, when the environment is supportive and nonstressful, and when the task relevant abilities of the leader are required. In a stressful situation the leader falls back on learned skills and knowledge. Thus Feidler (1986) proposes that intellectual ability and job relevant knowledge involve different cognitive processes.

The Cognitive Resources Model has paved the way for much future research. There are many facets that need to be investigated. Feidler himself raises some questions, for example:

1. Are certain intellectual abilities more vulnerable to stress?

2. Which are the relevant aspects of experience that enable a leader to perform well under stress?
3. What role do group members play?

This latter avenue of the role of group members is of particular importance. Again as in many other leadership studies, Fiedler has relied on correlational analysis. It cannot be assumed therefore that leader intelligence is having a causal influence on group performance. Furthermore this problem is particularly relevant when group member's perceptions are used to determine particular leader behaviour.

Nonetheless there is no doubt that these issues will be addressed in the near future.

INTEGRATING LEADERSHIP AND JUSTICE THEORIES

Within all the four basic leadership approaches discussed, the issue of fairness has not played a major role. This is somewhat surprising. The ancient Egyptians perceived fairness as an attribute of a good King (Frankfort et al 1949),

"authoritative utterance is in thy mouth,
perception is in thy heart, and thy tongue is the
shrine of justice ... justice was the quality which
accompanied a good ruler to the throne."(pg 94)

Similarly in an analysis of leader behaviours from Homer's Iliad, Sarachek (1968) found that justice and judgement were leadership qualities associated

with Agemonon. The Greeks saw that the task of a ruler was to be fair.

More recently, modern popular literature in the area of 'what it takes to be a good leader', emphasises that an important leadership quality is fairness (eg. Adair 1986, Adams & Yodor 1985, Carroll 1979, Hensen 1984, Holoviak & De Cenzo 1982).

In academic literature, leadership fairness has not been completely overlooked. For example Michener & Lawler (1975) found that fairness mediated the endorsement of pay-off distributions for subjects. They suggested that people/followers assess formal leaders on two distinct criteria; task criteria and moral criteria which incorporates fairness evaluations.

Despite some recognition however, fairness and justice have been infrequent variables in theoretical leadership models. Yet there is still scope for an integration of the two.

Collectively, trait, behaviour, and interaction theories are concerned with what particular functions and actions of the leader will make him/her effective. In the majority of cases a leader's effectiveness is related to his/her ability to help and lead a particular group to succeed in obtaining their goals. However a significant change in subordinate cooperation could occur if the leader is perceived as unfair.

Leadership and Procedural Justice

A large number of theories involve interpersonal dimensions, Mann's (1965) 'human skills,' the 'consideration factor' of the Ohio State Leadership

Studies, Bowers & Seashore's (1966) 'support and interaction facilitation', Blake & Mouton's (1964) 'concern for people', Mintzberg's (1973) 'interpersonal' behaviours, the 'individualised consideration' factor of Bass's (1985) transformational leader, Fiedler's (1967) 'leader-member relations,' and Hersey & Blanchard's (1982) 'relationship behaviour'.

In these areas of each model a leader is seen as promoting the relationship between himself/herself and the subordinate. Specific actions and processes involved could include being supportive, concerned, approachable, and having an understanding of the individual's needs. However, the theories do not propose or elaborate on how this is to be done. Although the process of establishing rapport with subordinates is likely to vary across individuals, if a leader is not seen as giving these qualities in a fair manner then the leader's job could be severely hampered.

Leadership and Distributive Justice

Allocation procedures are a further dimension of many leadership theories (Bass 1985, Blake & Mouton 1964, Bowers & Seashore 1966, Fiedler 1967, French & Raven 1959, Halpin & Winer 1957, Miner 1965, Mintzberg 1973). Equity Theory has highlighted that the distribution of rewards in an equitable manner is an important factor in subordinate satisfaction. In addition the theory of Allocation Preferences has also identified that the manner in which these rewards are distributed is also very relevant. A subordinates evaluation of the leader may depend on how fairly they evaluate and perceive this allocation.

Conclusion

The perception of fairness can have an impact on the subordinate's satisfaction and evaluation of the leader. In two common areas of leadership theories, interpersonal and allocation aspects, fairness can have a mediating effect on overall leader effectiveness. Why then, has fairness not been included in theoretical models of leadership? It is perhaps rather naive and somewhat simplistic to suggest that fairness has been neglected because theorists believe it is not important. A more plausible explanation could be that it is viewed as a global dimension that covers all areas of leadership. This is a valid assumption. Almost all actions and behaviours can be evaluated on a fair-unfair criterion. However there has been a substantial body of research into organisational justice. In this domain, fairness can be broken down into distinct elements - primarily procedural and distributive factors, but also into more specific categories (eg. Leventhal et al 1980, Leventhal 1980). The notion of being fair is not as general or uni-dimensional as some leadership theorists like to believe. The time has come for these two major areas to be integrated.

CHAPTER THREE

RATIONALE

Over the last few years New Zealand's economic status has changed considerably. We are now forced to compete in an open market economy. In addition, there has been an alarming rise in unemployment. Stronger emphasis is placed on efficiency, productivity levels and economic procedures. As such, there is a need to identify effective and efficient leaders. A leader however is only as good as the people he/she leads. The issue of fairness may have a marked impact on the capability and effectiveness of the leader. Therefore, it is important not only to identify if subordinates perceive leadership fairness as important but also what specific factors make a leader fair.

The Factors of Leadership Fairness

It is possible that one of the reasons fairness has been neglected in leadership theories is that it is perceived by theorists as a global, uni-dimensional factor. However, justice theorists have identified that fairness can be broken down into procedural and distributive factors.

Many theories of leadership include reward allocation as a factor. The process of reward allocation however can also be broken down into procedures and distributions. Equity Theory claims that distributions of rewards have the most impact on subordinate satisfaction and perceived fairness, whereas procedural theories (Thibaut & Walker 1975) maintain

procedures are more important. A study by Tyler & Caine (1981) looked at the relative importance of procedures and distributions on leadership evaluations. In a natural setting individuals were found to focus on procedures more than outcomes. If this is the case, leadership theories should focus primarily on the process by which rewards are allocated rather than the allocation itself.

Greenberg (1986a) looked at the determinants of perceived fairness evaluations. By using an open-ended questionnaire he found five procedural and two distributive factors related to fairness in appraisals. These factors also corresponded with those hypothesised by the Allocation Preference Theory (Leventhal et al 1980). Very recently research has begun to focus on fair managerial practices (Bies & Moag in press, cited in Greenberg 1986a, Sheppard & Lewicki in press, cited in Greenberg 1986a).

Given the impact that perceptions of being treated unfairly could have on leader effectiveness, there is a need to identify the specific factors involved.

Fairness Perceptions Across Different Groups

It is unlikely that all individuals within an organisation will perceive the same factors as important in leadership fairness. However there may be some similarities within groups.

Johnston (1976) looked at perceptions of organisational climate across generations within a small single office. These generations were defined in terms of job tenure. Specifically Johnston examined the perceptions of individuals who had been in an organisation for more than two years

(generation one), with those who had over six months but less than two years service (generation two), and he found significant differences between the two groups.

A strong element which came through in Johnston's (1976) study was the importance of the particular characteristics of the organisation. The organisation that he studied had recently undergone a rapid growth in size which had resulted in a move from an informal to a formal organisational system. The first generation subjects however preferred the previous informal system and by continuing to utilise the informal system, had not permitted the changes to influence their personal relationship with the organisation (Johnston 1976). In contrast, the newer second generation individuals were unaware of the informal system and had only been exposed to the formal system. Accordingly, one difference in perceptions of organisational climate that Johnston found was that the second generation individuals were more committed to the organisation.

Johnston's (1976) study highlighted that longevity of employment can coincide with changes in the organisation's environment and structure. Moreover, job tenure can be an influencing factor of an individuals perception of the organisation.

Vecchio (1987) examined Hersey & Blanchard's (1982) Situational Leadership Theory and found that more recently hired employees may require greater task structuring from their supervisor. Additional support also comes from work by Stinson & Robertson (1973) who found that inexperienced individuals preferred a leader behaviour style that emphasised consideration.

Leventhal et al's (1980) Allocation Preference Theory portrays stability as a moderating variable for perceptions of fairness. Procedures that are originally perceived as unfair can gradually be accepted as fair if they are stable and firmly rooted in the organisation's philosophy and practices. It is therefore likely that after several years in an organisation, the issue of fairness is less salient.

If members of a particular organisation differ in their perceptions and needs of a leader then there are implications for the selection as well as training of a leader. A leader should be able to lead in a manner compatible to those being led. Several studies have already identified that subordinates prefer a leader who is flexible in their behaviour style (eg. Hill 1973, Hill & Hughes 1974).

Thus, given the evidence from Johnston's (1976) investigation into perceptions of organisational climate, as well as the evidence based on Hersey & Blanchard's model, and the proposal from the Allocation Preference Theory, there is strong evidence to suggest that perceptions of fairness may differ among different generations within an organisation.

Hypotheses

Two hypotheses are therefore advanced:

1. The issue of fairness in leadership will be perceived as multi-dimensional.
2. Older generation individuals will foster different perceptions of fairness than younger generation individuals.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHOD

The method for this study was based principally on Greenberg's (1986b) research on the determinants of perceived fairness of performance evaluations. The organisation chosen was the New Zealand Police. One of the aims of the study was to compare the perceptions of individuals over time. In order to control for possible differences in job level, individuals of the same rank were needed. The New Zealand Police offered a considerable number of constables of equal rank who were easily accessible. There were four phases to this method.

PHASE ONE: RESPONSE GENERATION

The first part of the study involved the generation of determinants of what makes a leader fair.

Sample

54 Christchurch Police constables were used. 28 had more than two years service (generation 1), and 25 had less than 2 years service (generation 2). As empirical research has identified that evaluations of leaders can vary between the sexes (eg. Bartol & Butterfield 1976, Jacobson & Effertz 1974, Jago & Vroom 1982, Rice et al 1984), the researcher decided to use only a male sample. All subjects had completed the initial training period of six months and their years service was taken from completion of this training.

Procedure

The Staff Senior at Christchurch Central Police Station was approached by the researcher who explained the purpose of the study. Namely, to determine what factors are perceived as important in making a leader fair. The Staff Senior gave permission for the researcher to administer the questionnaire to police constables in the last five minutes of briefing before commencing a shift. Inspectors supervising each section were also informed. The researcher attended all five sections and shifts and distributed the questionnaire (Appendix 1). In an effort to increase interest in the study the researcher verbally gave a brief introduction as to the nature of the study as well as all instructions for completing the questionnaire (Appendix 2). Subjects were reminded of the anonymity of the research and that all results would be treated with complete confidentiality. Constables were asked to fill out the questionnaire in their own time and then return it to the Staff Senior. The first four groups yielded an extremely low response rate of 14.67% collectively. The researcher attributed this to the nature of the question and the request to hand it to the Staff Senior as well as a possible lack of personal commitment on behalf of the subjects. Thus for the final section the researcher returned to collect the questionnaire at the briefing of their following shift. The response rate increased to 78.95%.

At this stage there was an imbalance towards constables of less than two years service. A further 14 constables of more than two years service were obtained from the administration sector of the Police Station. An informal meeting arranged by the Staff Senior enabled the researcher to give the instructions to this group. Again the researcher returned to collect completed forms. The response rate was 70%.

An important factor to note is that constables were asked to think about their most immediate superior. In all cases this was a Sergeant. However subjects rated the role of Sergeant rather than a specific person.

The Instrument

An open-ended questionnaire with similar wording to the question used in Greenberg's (1986a) study was used, "What do you think are the most important factors that make a leader fair?". As Leadership covers such a vast area of behaviours it was decided not to ask for one single factor.

An initial test of the question was carried out on 8 hotel managers. The question was understood by all. However after a suggestion by one of the managers the researcher decided to change the ending to "...fair and just?" in order to avoid any confusion and rating on a good/bad dimension. (Appendix 1).

PHASE TWO: CATEGORISATION

The previous phase generated 241 statements. 150 from the first generation and 91 from the second generation. The total 241 Statements were typed onto individual cards. 10 copies of each were made.

Sample

10 research students (the author and 9 other psychology thesis students) assisted in this phase.

Procedure

The assistants were given the statements in two sets. Cards from 1-91 (set one) were from generation two and cards 92-241 (set two) were from generation one. Assistants were given written instructions (Appendix 3). They were asked to sort each set into similar groupings following the unstructured Q-sort technique (Stephenson 1953). No predetermined number of categories was specified. However, because of the large number of statements they were asked to use as few groups as possible. A discard pile was given to reduce the number of idiosyncratic statements. Assistants were asked to give each category a label.

The categories were then compiled by the experimenter. The criterion of retaining statement clusters was 70%. That is, a response category was defined when two or more statements were grouped together by at least 7 of the 10 researchers. This reduced the 91 statements of set one to 16 categories (Appendix 4), and the 150 statements of set two to 18 categories (Appendix 5). From both sets, 14 categories were the same. Thus a total of 20 categories were identified.

PHASE THREE: CROSS VALIDATION

In the cross validation phase, the same 10 research assistants were given back the original cards as well as the category groupings for each set. They were instructed to re-sort the cards into the given categories (Appendix 6). Again a discard pile was given. Across both sets 74.69% of the statements were classified into the same groups by all 10 assistants. If the criterion was reduced to 8 out of 10 researchers categorising a statement into a given group, the reliability increased to 94.19%.

PHASE FOUR: IMPORTANCE RATING

Sample

390 police constables were asked to rate the importance of each of the 20 categories. 191 Constables from Christchurch, and 199 from Auckland. The distribution of age and length of service for each generation and location sample are presented in Table 3.

Table 3 Composition of final sample.

	Total Number of Cases	Mean Age	Mean Length of Service
Total Sample	390	28.4 years (20 - 54)	6 years 4 months (1 m - 33ys)
Generation One	200	32 years (22 - 54)	11 years 1 month (2ys2ms - 33ys)
Generation Two	190	24.3 years (20 - 32)	1 year 2 months (1m - 2ys)
Christchurch	190	29.5 years (20 - 54)	7 years 4 months (1m - 33ys)
Auckland	200	27.3 years (20 - 52)	5 years 7 months (2ms - 32ys6ms)

The mode for each sample is given in brackets.

Procedure

The researcher used the same 5 police sections as in the response generation phase, as well as policeman working in varying departments throughout the Christchurch Police Station. In addition, constables from 5 suburban branches in Christchurch were also given the questionnaire. Although full instructions were given on the front page of the questionnaire a brief introduction was given by the researcher. As the questionnaire was not long, constables approached during their briefing session completed the questionnaire during the 5 minutes of allocated time. The response rate for these groups was 100%. Other Police Constables completed the questionnaire within 1 week. The response rate for these groups was 73%. 191 completed questionnaires in total were received from Christchurch Constables, 98 from generation 1 and 93 from generation 2.

However because of the low number of police constables in Christchurch a second sample of Auckland constables was used. The researcher contacted the Superintendent of the Auckland Central Police Station. A letter requesting permission to use Auckland constables was sent (Appendix 7) along with an outline of the aims of the research (Appendix 8). Permission was granted from both Auckland Police and Police Headquarters in Wellington. The researcher travelled to Auckland to collect this data.

This Auckland sample completed only phase 4 of the study. The procedure used was identical to the Christchurch sample. 199 questionnaires in total were completed, 102 from generation one and 97 from generation two. The response rate for the Auckland sample, across all groups, was 100%.

The Instrument

The front page of the questionnaire gave full instructions (Appendix 9). Information was obtained regarding the subjects age, sex, rank, city of employment and length of service in the Police. They were then asked to rate the importance of each of the 20 categories from phase 3, as determinants of fair and just leadership. A 9 point bi-polar scale was labelled, not very important (1) to very important (9). In addition, subjects were asked to rate how important they thought leadership fairness was within the Police as well as for leaders in general. Finally questions asking whether a good leader will always be a fair one, and the inverse of will a fair leader always be a good one were included. The first was added to see if fairness was perceived as an important factor in making a good leader, and the latter inverse question was designed to see if fairness itself is seen as all that is necessary to be a good leader.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESULTS

The Perceived Factors of Leadership Fairness

Total responses were factor analysed by using the principle factor and varimax rotation technique (Appendix 10). Initial analysis revealed 4 factors accounting for 59.8% of the variance. However as there were only two principle factors with eigen factors greater than 2.0, the rotation was limited to two factors. The two factors that emerged were 'bias suppression, consistency and concern for individuals' needs' accounting for 31.4% of the variance, and 'job competence, a sense of humour and personal integrity' accounting for 10.4% of the variance. Factor loadings, reliabilities and importance ratings are presented in Table 4.

Fairness Perceptions Across Generations

The mean importance ratings for the 20 determinants of each generation are presented in Table 5. A t-test for independent samples was used to compare the mean ratings of generation one and generation two. Differences were found on 6 of the 20 determinants; ability to lead by example, impartiality, consistency, ability to give praise when due, decisiveness, knowledge and understanding of capabilities/character of staff.

Table 4 Factor loadings, mean importance ratings and reliability coefficients for the total sample.

TOTAL SAMPLE				
	Factor Loadings		Mean Importance	Reliability
	1	2	Rating	Coefficient
FACTOR ONE "bias suppression, consistency & concern for individuals' needs"			7.80	0.84
Treats everyone equally	.74	.02		
Consistency	.68	.01		
Approachability	.65	.28		
Listens to Staff	.64	.33		
Flexibility	.64	.13		
Reliability	.63	.38		
Knowledge & Understanding of Capabilities/Character of Staff	.50	.03		
Impartiality	.59	.04		
Loyalty	.57	.16		
FACTOR TWO "Job Competence, a sense of humour, and personal integrity"			5.92	0.77
Good knowledge of their job	.00	.78		
Intelligence	.03	.68		
Decisiveness	.22	.60		
A sense of humour	.21	.60		
Ability to lead by example	.11	.55		
Ability to give praise when due	.41	.54		
Trustworthiness	.44	.51		

Table 5 Mean importance ratings and t values for the 20 determinants across generations.

DETERMINANTS BY GENERATION				
Determinant	Both Generations	Generation One	Generation Two	t value
Authoritativeness	6.40 (1.62)	6.39 (1.59)	6.41 (1.65)	-0.09
Intelligence	7.07 (1.53)	7.01 (1.65)	7.14 (1.38)	-0.82
Good knowledge of their job	8.19 (1.07)	8.21 (1.00)	8.17 (1.13)	0.38
Ability to lead by example	7.88 (1.20)	8.07 (1.15)	7.69 (1.22)	3.21 **
Explains his/her actions and decisions	7.07 (1.61)	7.13 (1.61)	7.00 (1.61)	0.83
Communication				
Skills	7.91 (1.09)	7.96 (1.16)	7.86 (1.01)	0.93
Impartiality	7.81 (1.37)	7.97 (1.29)	7.64 (1.44)	2.44 *
Honesty	8.35 (1.03)	8.42 (1.04)	8.27 (1.02)	1.36
Trustworthiness	8.46 (0.99)	8.54 (0.99)	8.37 (0.99)	1.65
Approachability	8.02 (1.20)	8.03 (1.24)	8.00 (1.15)	0.29
Consistency	8.18 (1.03)	8.31 (0.96)	8.04 (1.08)	2.62 **
Loyalty	7.84 (1.33)	7.94 (1.31)	7.73 (1.34)	1.59
Ability to give praise when due	7.03 (1.64)	7.28 (1.58)	6.76 (1.67)	3.14 **
Flexibility	7.02 (1.44)	7.15 (1.52)	6.89 (1.35)	1.90
Treats everyone equally	7.62 (1.67)	7.60 (1.70)	7.64 (1.64)	-0.22
Reliability	7.96 (1.11)	8.01 (1.21)	7.91 (0.98)	0.85
Listens to Staff	7.84 (1.23)	7.89 (1.31)	7.78 (1.13)	0.94
A sense of humour	6.93 (1.91)	6.92 (1.93)	6.94 (1.89)	-0.09
Decisiveness	7.75 (1.38)	8.01 (1.29)	7.46 (1.41)	4.02 **
Knowledge & understanding of capabilities and character of Staff	7.89 (1.15)	8.02 (1.09)	7.76 (1.20)	2.25 *

Standard Deviations are in Brackets

* significance $p < 0.05$

** significance $p < 0.01$

To examine any possible differences across generations on the two factors, the factor scores for each individual were calculated and then a t-test for independent samples was carried out. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 6. Significant differences in importance ratings were found on both factors. In each case, generation one rated the factor as more important than generation two.

Table 6 Mean importance ratings and t values for factors one and two across generations.

T TEST	Generation One	Generation Two	t value	Significance
Factor One	7.88	7.70	2.03	p<0.05
Factor Two	6.01	5.84	2.34	p<0.05

To further investigate differences, the responses of each generation were separately factor analysed using the same principle factor and varimax rotation technique. Again, as for the total sample, both generations yielded two factors with eigen values greater the 2.0. Both rotations were limited to two factors. For generation one, the two factors that emerged were 'bias suppression, consistency and concern for individuals' needs' accounting for 32.4% of the variance, and 'job competence and personal integrity' which accounted for 10.2% of the variance. Factor one for generation two was 'job competence and a sense of humour" accounting for 30.3% of the variance, and factor two was 'bias suppression, consistency, and concern for individuals' needs' accounting for 11.4% of the variance. The factor loadings, importance ratings and reliability coefficients for generation one are presented in Table 7, and for generation two are presented in Table 8.

Table 7 Factor loadings, importance ratings and reliability coefficients for generation one.

GENERATION ONE				
	Factor Loadings		Mean Importance	Reliability
	1	2	Rating	Coefficient
FACTOR ONE "bias suppression, consistency, and concern for individuals' needs".			7.88	0.84
Treats everyone equally	.73	.04		
Consistency	.73	.02		
Approachability	.71	.20		
Flexibility	.70	.10		
Listens to Staff	.70	.24		
Reliability	.67	.31		
Loyalty	.57	.15		
Knowledge and understanding of capabilities/character of staff	.56	.18		
FACTOR TWO "Job Competence and personal integrity			5.27	0.78
Intelligence	.07	.76		
Good knowledge of their job	.08	.75		
Decisiveness	.15	.64		
Trustworthiness	.43	.59		
Honesty	.37	.52		
Ability to give praise when due	.44	.51		

Table 8 Factor loadings, mean importance ratings and reliability coefficients for generation two.

GENERATION TWO				
	Factor Loadings		Mean Importance	Reliability
	1	2	Rating	Coefficient
FACTOR ONE "Job competence and a sense of humour"			4.91	0.77
Good knowledge of their job	.76	-.09		
A sense of humour	.71	.06		
Decisiveness	.65	.20		
Ability to lead by example	.63	.04		
Ability to give praise when due	.62	.31		
Intelligence	.55	.06		
FACTOR TWO "Bias suppression, consistency, and concern for individuals' needs".			7.71	0.81
Treats everyone equally	.05	.76		
Knowledge and understanding of capabilities/character of staff	-.03	.66		
Consistency	-.04	.64		
Impartiality	-.07	.63		
Loyalty	.19	.57		
Flexibility	.16	.56		
Reliability	.49	.55		
Listens to Staff	.47	.55		
Approachability	.43	.54		

Fairness as an Important Issue

The final four items on the instrument were designed to investigate the perceived importance of fairness as a leadership dimension. The mean ratings for each item are presented in Table 9. T-tests for independent samples were carried out to compare the mean ratings of each generation (Table 9). Significant differences were found between generations on how important leadership fairness is in the New Zealand Police and also on the importance of leadership fairness in general. In both cases, generation one felt the issue of fairness was more important than generation two.

Table 9 Mean importance ratings and t values for items 21-24 across generations.

T-TEST	Total Sample	Generation One	Generation Two	t value	Significance
Item 21	8.19	8.32	8.06	2.50	p<0.05
Item 22	7.95	8.10	7.78	2.88	p<0.01
Item 23	6.53	6.46	6.60	-0.75	ns
Item 24	5.34	5.33	5.36	-0.20	ns

T-tests for independent samples were also carried out across item pairs (21-22 and 23-24). Results are presented in Table 10 and Table 11. Both generations rated fairness in the New Zealand Police as more important than fairness in general, and also both groups rated good leaders as being fair significantly higher than the statement asking if fair leaders will always be good.

Table 10 Mean importance ratings and t values for each generation across items 21-22.

T-TEST	Police Fairness	Fairness in General	t value	Significance
Total Sample	8.19	7.95	4.35	p<0.01
Generation One	8.32	8.10	2.48	p<0.05
Generation Two	8.06	7.78	3.89	p<0.01

Table 11 Mean importance ratings and t values for each generation across items 23-24.

T-TEST	Good Leaders are always fair	Fair Leaders are always good	t value	Significance
Total Sample	6.53	5.34	11.58	p<0.01
Generation One	6.46	5.33	7.85	p<0.01
Generation Two	6.60	5.36	8.53	p<0.01

Additional Findings

The mean importance ratings of the total sample were also calculated. The 5 most important factors were trustworthiness (8.46), honesty (8.35), good knowledge of their job (8.19), consistency (8.18), and approachability (8.02). The 5 least important factors were authoritativeness (6.40), flexibility (7.02), ability to give praise when due (7.03), explains his/her actions and decisions (7.07), and intelligence (7.07).

Differences Across Location

The mean importance ratings of the 20 determinants of each location are presented in Table 12. A t-test for independent samples was used to compare the mean ratings of Auckland and Christchurch constables. Differences were found on 5 of the 20 determinants; authoritativeness, good knowledge of their job, explains his/her actions and decisions, ability to give praise when due, and a sense of humour.

Table 12 Mean importance ratings and t values for the 20 determinants across location.

DETERMINANTS BY LOCATION				
Determinant	Both Locations	Christchurch	Auckland	t value
Authoritativeness	6.40 (1.62)	6.23 (1.59)	6.56 (1.63)	-2.04 *
Intelligence	7.07 (1.53)	6.97 (1.52)	7.16 (1.54)	-1.24
Good knowledge of their job	8.19 (1.07)	8.02 (1.13)	8.35 (0.98)	-3.17**
Ability to lead by example	7.88 (1.20)	7.78 (1.24)	7.99 (1.15)	-1.74
Explains his/her actions and decisions	7.07 (1.61)	6.88 (1.58)	7.24 (1.62)	-2.23 *
Communication				
Skills	7.91 (1.09)	7.84 (1.02)	7.97 (1.16)	-1.21
Impartiality	7.81 (1.37)	7.93 (1.34)	7.69 (1.39)	1.71
Honesty	8.35 (1.03)	7.41 (0.92)	8.28 (1.12)	1.21
Trustworthiness	8.46 (0.99)	8.47 (0.89)	8.45 (1.08)	0.18
Approachability	8.02 (1.20)	7.96 (1.08)	8.07 (1.29)	-0.97
Consistency	8.18 (1.03)	8.19 (1.03)	8.17 (1.03)	0.14
Loyalty	7.84 (1.33)	7.88 (1.19)	7.80 (1.44)	0.63
Ability to give praise when due	7.03 (1.64)	6.85 (1.76)	7.20 (1.49)	-2.12 *
Flexibility	7.02 (1.44)	7.04 (1.45)	7.00 (1.44)	0.22
Treats everyone equally	7.62 (1.67)	7.65 (1.67)	7.59 (1.68)	0.34
Reliability	7.96 (1.11)	7.88 (1.07)	8.05 (1.13)	-1.58
Listens to Staff	7.84 (1.23)	7.78 (1.13)	7.89 (1.31)	-0.94
A sense of humour	6.93 (1.91)	6.70 (1.98)	7.15 (1.81)	-2.36 *
Decisiveness	7.75 (1.38)	7.61 (1.47)	7.87 (1.28)	-1.89
Knowledge & understanding of capabilities and character of Staff	7.89 (1.15)	7.95 (1.18)	7.84 (1.13)	0.92

Standard Deviations are in Brackets

* significance $p < 0.05$

** significance $p < 0.01$

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION

Leadership as a Multi-dimensional Factor

The results of this analysis have shown that leadership fairness is not uni-dimensional. Two principle factors are associated with leadership fairness. These two factors accounted for 41.7% of the variance. Factor one incorporates the two rules of consistency and bias suppression of Leventhal's (1980) Justice Judgement Model, as well as the consideration factor of the behavioural theories of leadership. Factor two bears closer resemblance to aspects of Fiedler's Cognitive Resources Model which emphasizes intellectual ability, technical competence and job relevant knowledge.

Consistency has already been identified as an important aspect of organisational practices. Greenberg's (1986b) study of the perceived determinants of fairness of performance evaluations found that the consistent application of standards was one of five procedural factors that emerged, and similarly, Singer (1987) found consistency as an important factor in the perceived fairness of selection practices. This study has also identified consistency as an important dimension of fair leadership, and in turn, the present finding suggests that, in order for a leader to be perceived as fair, he/she should behave consistently.

Based on Leventhal's (1980) Justice Judgement Model and supporting

evidence from Greenberg (1986b), consistency is identified as a procedural factor. Accordingly, the conception of consistency as an important dimension of leadership is compatible with leadership theories that encompass procedures. One of the more frequently mentioned procedures in leadership theories involves interpersonal relations. For example, the Ohio State Leadership Studies 'consideration' factor covers behaviours such as finding time to listen to subordinates and consulting with subordinates on important matters before going ahead. Furthermore, Bass's (1985) transformational leader dimension of 'individualised consideration' includes that the leader should delegate projects to stimulate and create learning experiences. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) also discuss leadership partly in terms of providing socioemotional support. These leadership theories, and indeed all theories that involve the personal interaction between leader and subordinate, are referring to procedures and processes. The findings of this study support that consistency in the area of interpersonal relations of leadership theories is necessary for a leader to be perceived as fair.

The second aspect of this factor focuses on bias suppression which reflects clearly the notion of bias suppression in Leventhal's Justice Judgement Model (1980). In his model Leventhal (1980) holds that bias on behalf of the decision maker should be prevented. From this study, the fair leader is perceived as someone who is impartial and treats everyone equally. Again, this dimension is applicable to the interpersonal factors of leadership theories. It is also relevant to leadership theories that focus on decision making processes, in particular, the Vroom-Yetton Normative Model of Decision Making. This model provides set rules and guidelines to help managers and leaders determine which decision procedure to use. The

present finding would suggest that avoiding bias is also a guideline that may need to be considered if the decision is to be accepted by subordinates as fair.

Treating everyone equally does not however dismiss the fact that a leader should be flexible or that he/she can adapt his/her behaviour according to a particular individual or group of individuals. Flexibility is also a component of factor one. Hill & Hughes (1964) have shown that subordinates prefer a leader who is flexible and Hersey & Blanchard's (1982) Situational Model of Leadership also focuses on treating the individual requirements of the subordinate.

'Concern for individuals' needs' is the final dimension to this factor. This reflects more directly the constructs of consideration and interpersonal relationships of the leadership literature. Both groups of subjects considered being approachable, reliable, loyal and having a knowledge and understanding of the capabilities/ character of staff as qualities that a fair leader should possess. Leadership theories also hold these attributes as necessary leadership qualities - a further example is the 'concern for people' dimension of Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid (1964).

Factor one of this present study has presented leadership fairness in terms of the procedural justice rules of the Justice Judgement Model (Leventhal 1980). To be perceived as fair a leader should display consistency, impartiality and a concern for subordinates' needs.

'Job competence', incorporating intelligence, technical knowledge and decisiveness, is one of the dimensions of factor two. The ability to perform one's job well has not been a factor encompassed by the organisational

justice literature. Instead, it is more a reflection of the cognitive factors proposed by Fielder's (1986) Cognitive Resources Theory. These cognitive variables have been omitted from much leadership research and yet are still prominent in organisational research such as selection (Campbell et al 1970) and employment issues (Gottfredson 1986). This study supports Fiedler's claim that cognitive factors have been unjustifiably neglected in previous research. It has also shown that a certain degree of cognitive competence may be necessary in judgements of fairness. It would seem that in order to be perceived as fair a leader must also be perceived as competent at his/her job.

Two propositions of Fielder's theory are that under nonstressful conditions intellectual abilities contribute more highly to the task than under stressful conditions when the leader 'falls back' on previously learned skills. The findings of this study support both of these propositions. Intelligence, necessary for non stressful environments and technical competence and decisiveness which are needed during stressful activities were perceived by both groups as characteristic of a fair leader. The job of a Police Officer is one which is predominantly stressful (Aylward 1985), but also one which requires much routine work. Having intellectual skills is a necessary requirement but in turn, the ability to use experience and be decisive is also essential in situations where the leader must act quickly.

The other two dimensions of this factor are 'a sense of humour' and 'personal integrity'. Having a sense of humour has not been a prominent feature of leadership nor organisational theories. It may therefore be a component specific to this particular organisation. Apart from helping to develop a good rapport with staff, being able to 'see the funny side of things' and 'have a laugh', can be helpful and supportive when tension is high, or

the work entailed of an individual is extremely unpleasant or stressful. As police work is stressful (Aylward 1985), a sense of humour as a relevant quality of fair leadership may be essential. Unfortunately this attribute would still not prevent the high percentage of stress related problems that occur to individuals in the Police. However many of the problems arise from the particular requirements of the job (Aylward 1985), and a sense of humour may, from a subordinate's view, be a possible means of alleviating stress from within the internal environment of the organisation.

'Personal integrity' is the third dimension of factor two and according to many of the leadership theories integrity is a redeeming feature of an effective leader. In addition trust and honesty also correspond to the ethicality rule of the Justice Judgement Model (Leventhal 1980). This rule holds that procedures must adhere to fundamental moral and ethical values. In this instance, the concept of justice is directly exemplified in the leadership literature.

The distributive factors of the Justice Judgement Model (Leventhal 1980) were not identified as characteristics of a fair leader, yet resource allocation is a feature of many leadership theories (Bass 1985, Blake & Mouton 1964, Bowers & Seashore 1966, Fiedler 1967, Halpin & Winer 1957, Miner 1965, Mintzberg 1973). In New Zealand, much of resource allocation to employees is standardised and thus covered by rules and regulations. One individual, namely a leader, is not responsible for allocations of pay. To this end, employees may not attribute the rewards and pay they receive directly to the leader, and therefore the issue of distributive justice relating to leadership, is decreased.

This study has applied three of the procedural justice rules of the justice judgement model to leadership. The other components of perceived fairness encompass dimensions from the leadership literature. Thus the perceived ability of being a fair leader is comprised from both areas of literature. The results of this study have shown that it is not sufficient to simply apply the justice rules to leadership and moreover it has highlighted that fairness may have been unjustly omitted from the leadership literature.

Fairness Perceptions Across Generations

The results of this study have shown that regardless of job tenure, individuals have relatively the same perceptions of leadership fairness. Only in factor two do the two generations differ slightly. The younger individuals value having a sense of humour whilst the older individuals perceive personal integrity as a component. This newer generation of constables is working in the front line, a role which one could argue, is consistently more stressful than an office position. As mentioned previously, having a sense of humour may help to alleviate stress and therefore it would follow that this dimension is more pertinent to front line constables.

The underlying assumptions of a fair leader are however very similar for both generations. Initially this may seem contradictory to some previous research which looked at the effect of job tenure on perceptions of organisational climate (Johnston 1976). However, further analysis of the results showed that the first generation individuals perceived both factors as more important than the younger generation individuals. Vecchio (1987) and Stinson & Robertson (1973) have both found that more recently hired

employees prefer a leadership style that emphasizes consideration and gives more task structuring.

A proposal based on Leventhal's (1980) Allocation Preference Theory that the importance of fairness may over time become less salient, was not supported. However there are two important aspects that need to be considered. Firstly, the Allocation Preference Theory maintained that unfair procedures may gradually become accepted over time. One can not assume that the procedures in the Police are actually perceived as unfair. Secondly, the issues of fairness that are discussed in the Allocation Preference Theory are primarily based on organisational practices rather than individual people or groups of people. In the course of actively dealing with leaders, perception of their actions are far more likely to be salient than perceptions of the underlying rules and regulations of the organisation. To this end, one could infer that because an individual has 'first hand' knowledge and experience of the actions, character and personality of the leader on a day to day basis, then over time, issues of fairness do not become less salient.

This study has shown that the more experienced employees rate both these factors as more important. A possible explanation for this could be that prolonged exposure and contact with leaders emphasises the need to be fair. Leadership fairness as an important issue would be reinforced the more experience as individual gains.

A very strong influence here could also be the specific organisation involved. The researcher discussed these results with both Christchurch and Auckland Police who did not find the results surprising. One explanation was that newly appointed constables have relatively little contact and

exposure to their supervisor. much of their training emphasizes using initiative and personal judgement while working 'out and about' in the city. They are not overallly concerned about the type of treatment they receive from their supervisor. It is not until later on in their careers that they become more involved and more aware of the actions of their supervisor.

The existence of different perceptions of leader fairness across subgroups of an organisation can have serious implications for the selection and training of staff for promotion and leadership roles. Having already established that leader flexibility is important, a leader may have to vary his/her style according to the particular group with which he/she is in contact. From this study, according to the New Zealand Police, fairness perceptions do not change over time, they only increase in importance. Therefore the same leadership attributes are acceptable to all generations as indicative of a fair leader and the necessity of flexibility in style is reduced.

Leadership Fairness as an Important Issue

From this study, an assumption that the omission of fairness in leadership is a reflection of its perceived relative unimportance is not warranted. Both groups rated fairness as an important issue. Not suprisingly, and consistent with the previous results, older generation individuals felt fairness in the Police as well as fairness in general, was more important than the younger generation. Both groups however perceived fairness in the Police as more important than leadership fairness in general. There is likely to be some personal bias acting here. Probably most people believe that issues in their own organisations are of significantly more importance when compared to other institutions or organisations. Furthermore, this finding also relates to

the earlier mentioned explanation given by the Police. If contact with supervisors most consistently occurs only over serious issues and problems rather than on a day to day basis, it may be more important to be fair. That is, the more important the issue the more relevant the need to act fairly.

An additional finding of this study is that fairness is not a sufficiently strong attribute to alone ensure leader effectiveness. But the results also showed that fairness is considered a necessary quality of leadership without being the total dimension. This has an important bearing on the validity of previous literature in this area. This literature is still applicable and valid, but needs to be extended somewhat to include fairness.

Additional Findings

Some differences in perceptions were found between Auckland and Christchurch. Differences across demographic variables could stem from a wide variety of factors. In the New Zealand Police examples of such factors could be the crime rate, or the population including size and racial composition. This study has not closely examined differences in perceptions across locations but does provide some evidence to indicate the need for further examination as well as the need to consider demographic variables when conducting research in large organisations.

Limitations

There are also some limitations of this study which must be acknowledged.

Firstly, a factor that may have a bearing on the validity and the ability to

generalise the results stems from an individual's preconceptions of leadership. Rush et al (1977) and Eden and Leviatan (1975) discuss the notion of an implicit leadership theory. Rush et al (1977) purport that the processing of leader behaviours in relation to a behavioural questionnaire involves a very complex set of perceptual and cognitive operations. It is therefore unrealistic to assume an individual can retain and recall all the relevant information necessary when completing a questionnaire. They maintain that,

"What is more likely is that rater's rely heavily on stereotypes and implicit theories to reduce the amount of information processing required in perceiving and understanding the behaviour of others" (pg.150)

It is possible that the individuals in this study relied on stereotypes of leader behaviour when completing the questionnaire. An advantage however of this particular study, is that the questionnaire is also derived from perceptions of the same individuals. The implicit leadership theory is primarily concerned with the validity of constructions such as the consideration and initiating structure subscales of the LBDQ. Nevertheless, one cannot dismiss that the questionnaire itself is possibly based on individuals' perceived stereotypes as opposed to their actual perceptions of leader attributes.

A second limitation comes from the homogeneity of the sample. This study only identified two factors of leadership fairness. Police constables are selected on the basis of certain distinct criteria and to this end they are all of a particular intellectual and physical standard. It is very likely that there is not

a representative cross section of individuals in the Police. Other organisations may produce more distinct factors and differences across groups.

The third limitation also has its basis in the sample and particular organisation chosen. Namely that the ability to generalise the findings is somewhat limited. The Police is a unique organisation, not only in its role, but also in its composition. The study focused only on male perceptions, which as mentioned earlier, can be markedly different from the perceptions of females. The Police however is not an organisation that affords as equal proportion of both sexes. The assumption that the Police is a unique organisation is also perceived by its members. In one of many discussions with members of the Police, one opinion was that "the only person who understands a Policeman, is a Policeman".

Implications of the Findings

The findings of this study have practical implications.

1. Fairness has been established as a factor perceived as important in leadership. The study has also identified the specific components of this fairness, namely 'consistency, bias suppression and concern for individual's needs' and 'job competence, a sense of humour and personal integrity'. The selection and training of individuals for leadership positions should not overlook the issue of fairness. Moreover, fairness was identified as an important issue, which in turn reinforces the necessity for it to be acknowledged and considered in practical leadership matters.

2. Slight differences were also found across generations within the organisation. A leader should be flexible in dealing with separate groups of individuals. The appropriate style of behaviour may differ depending on the particular group that he/she is dealing with at a certain time. This study has reinforced Hill & Hughes (1974) finding that a leader should have a flexible style. Thus again in selection and training methods, flexibility of style should be considered and emphasised.

The present study was primarily exploratory in nature. To this end these recommendations are purely tentative. The main aim of the study was to investigate the factors of leadership fairness and as such more investigations and confirmatory research is needed.

Future Research Recommendations

The findings of this study allow several recommendations for future research.

1. The importance of fairness as a dimension of leadership. No theories to date have substantially incorporated fairness into a theoretical model of leader effectiveness. This study has shown that fairness is not unidimensional and is also perceived as an important aspect of leadership. Leadership fairness should not however, be studied as the sole construct of effective leadership. It is a dimension which is a necessary component. Future research into leadership effectiveness should account for the concept of fairness.

2. The theoretical body of research that has been conducted in the area of organisational justice is applicable to varying organisational areas. Having already been established as pertinent to performance appraisals (Greenberg 1986), selection (Singer 1987), reward allocations (Barrett-Howard & Tyler 1986), this study has shown that justice is also applicable to leadership. Future research should thus keep extending justice to relevant organisational domains.
3. This study has also shown that different subgroups within an organisation can foster different perceptions of similar constructs. Future research should acknowledge and consider possible implications of differing variables within a given sample or organisation. Specifically, based on this study, the role of job tenure needs to be more fully explored.
4. Finally, this study only examined the perceptions of organisational justice and leadership fairness. Johnston's (1976) study which examined perceptions of organisational climate, did however, find significant differences across generations. Perceptions of any particular organisational domain with a given organisation are interrelated by perceptions of organisational climate. Further investigation is needed that examines the link between organisational climate, organisational practices and organisational justice.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSIONS

The present study has supported the following conclusions:

1. Leadership fairness is a multi-dimensional factor.
2. The components of leadership fairness are comprised of dimensions from both organisational justice and leadership literature.
3. Different perceptions of the relative importance of these factors of leadership fairness differ with job tenure.
4. Leadership fairness is perceived as an important issue, although its relative importance may be organisational specific.
5. To be a good leader, an individual should be fair, however fairness alone will not guarantee an effective leader.
6. Perceptions of leadership fairness may also differ across demographic variables.

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APPENDIX 1

AGE:

SEX:

RANK:

NUMBER OF YEARS/MONTHS IN THE POLICE?

WHAT DO YOU THINK ARE THE MOST IMPORTANT FACTORS THAT
MAKE A LEADER FAIR AND JUST?

APPENDIX 2

Good afternoon. Firstly, I would like to thank you for this opportunity to talk to you. My name is Nicky Sinclair and I am from the University of Canterbury. This year I am completing my M.A. in Industrial Psychology and I am writing a thesis.

The main theme of my thesis is looking at leadership fairness. That is, what people perceive as important in being a fair leader. Within this topic I want to compare the perceptions of people who have been in an organisation less than 2 years with those of a longer service. The reason I chose the Police is because if I want to compare two so called generations, all the people in the sample must be at the same job level. As I need a fairly large sample, the Police is an excellent organisation.

What I would like you to do today is fill out a small questionnaire. This is the beginning of my study and the data that I collect from you now will enable me to compile a more detailed questionnaire that I will also ask you to fill out at a later date. The questionnaire is very straightforward, but with the main question I want you to think of your Sergeant. You don't have to think of him or her personally, just the role of a Sergeant. Also the number of years in the Police does not include your 6 months training.

The questionnaires are completely anonymous so please don't write your name on them. They are also voluntary. When you have finished them would you please hand them in to the Staff Senior. Thank you very much for your help.

APPENDIX 3

INSTRUCTIONS

Enclosed in this envelope are two sets of cards. On each card is one statement about Leadership Fairness.

Taking each set **separately**, you are to sort the statements into similar groupings. Use as few groups as you feel possible. You also have a "discard" group. If you feel the statement is irrelevant or if you cannot understand it's meaning, please place it in the discard group.

When you have completed categorising the cards, write a statement giving each group an overall label. Place the label on the top of each group bundle.

N.B. Please keep the original two sets separate.

The numbers on the cards are not relevant.

Thankyou for your cooperation and support.

Nicky Sinclair

APPENDIX 4

SET ONE

1. Authoritative
2. Has Intelligence and Common Sense.
3. Good Knowledge of their Job.
4. Ability to lead by Example.
5. Explains his/her Actions and Decisions.
6. Treats everyone equally and as equals.
7. Communication Skills.
8. Unbiased and Impartial.
9. Honesty.
10. Reliability.
11. Trustworthy.
12. Approachability.
13. Consistency.
14. Loyalty.
15. Ability to give praise when due.
16. Flexibility.

APPENDIX 5

SET TWO

1. Consistency.
2. Approachability.
3. Intelligence.
4. Superior knowledge of Job.
5. Loyalty.
6. Honesty.
7. Listens to Staff.
8. Communication Skills.
9. Explains Decisions.
10. Sense of humour.
11. Ability to lead by Example.
12. Decisive.
13. Gives Praise when due.
14. Impartial.
15. Trustworthy.
16. Knowledge and Understanding of Capabilities/ Character of Staff.
17. Firm but not Authoritarian.
18. Flexibility.

APPENDIX 6

INSTRUCTIONS

Enclosed in this envelope are two sets of cards. They are the same cards that you have already placed into groups. Inside each set of cards is a pile of group labels. You are to sort the cards into these given groups.

As before you also have a discard pile. If you do not feel that a card is applicable to any of the groups, please place it in this discard pile.

Please place the group heading on top of the completed pile and again, keep the two groups separate and disregard the numbers.

Thankyou once again for your help.

Nicky Sinclair

APPENDIX 7

19th September 1988

The Superintendent
Auckland Central Police Station
Private Bag
AUCKLAND

Nicola Sinclair
2 Wilfrid Street
Ilam
CHRISTCHURCH

Dear Sir

I am currently completing a thesis for a Master of Arts degree in Industrial - Organisational Psychology at the University of Canterbury. The topic of my thesis is on Organisational Justice and Leadership Fairness.

I have developed a questionnaire using Christchurch Police Constables and am now administering this questionnaire also to Police Constables. However due to the design of my thesis I need a large number of Constables to fill out my questionnaire and there are unfortunately not enough in the Christchurch region.

I would therefore be very grateful if I could use Police Constables from Auckland. As mentioned on the attached sheet, I would require 100 Policemen with less than two years service and 100 with more than two years. The procedure I have been using in Christchurch is to briefly outline my research to Constables during their briefing before they start their shifts, and then handing out the questionnaire for them to fill out at the same time. The entire process takes approximately 5 minutes.

I have included with this letter an outline of my thesis which has also been sent to National Headquarters, as well as a copy of my questionnaire. If convenient I would like to plan to come to Auckland from Monday 3rd October to Friday 7th October. I can also be contacted at the University ph.667 001 ext.8083.

Thankyou very much for your consideration and I look forward to hearing from you.

Yours faithfully

Nicola Sinclair

APPENDIX 8

Industrial - Organisational Psychology M.A. Thesis

Nicola Sinclair

Topic: Organisational Justice and Leadership Fairness.

The main aim of my thesis is to bring together two areas of psychological research; organisational justice theory and leadership personality and behaviour.

Firstly my study is concerned with identifying the specific factors that subordinates feel are important in making a leader fair and just. From the organisational justice viewpoint I am interested if these factors fall into groups of distributive justice (giving and receiving outcomes) and procedural justice (the way something is done).

Secondly, based on previous research carried out in the area of organisational climate, I am interested if these factors differ between groups. The two groups within my thesis are differentiated by time. One group having less than two years work experience within a particular organisation and the other more than two years.

The New Zealand Police is an ideal organisation to carry out this study. In order to control for as many other factors that might alter perceptions and look only at time, the subjects in this study should all be at the same job level. The Police is one of very few, if not the only organisation, where I could find 400 people (200 of each group) at the same level ie. Constable.

In addition, however, there is unfortunately an insufficient number of Constables within the Canterbury region for me to collect all my data. Thus I would also like to use Constables working in Auckland. This would also allow an interesting comparison across location.

My thesis is primarily concerned with the theoretical concepts of justice and leadership perceptions over time. The New Zealand Police provides an ideal organisation in which to carry out this research.

APPENDIX 9

Attached to this sheet is a questionnaire on **Leadership Fairness**.

There are 20 different statements. Please indicate how important you think each statement is in making a leader **fair and just**. Think about the leader that is your most immediate superior. However do not rate him or her personally, rate the role that they fulfill.

Remember that it is not what makes a good leader, but a FAIR one.

The questionnaire is ANONYMOUS so there is no need to put your name on it.

There are no RIGHT or WRONG answers. I am interested in your own perceptions.

AGE:

SEX:

RANK:

CITY/ TOWN (eg. Christchurch):

NUMBER OF YEARS/ MONTHS IN POLICE FORCE:

Read each statement carefully and show how important you think it is in making a fair leader by circling ONE number on each scale.

	Not very Important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very Important			
1. Authoritativeness						1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2. Intelligence						1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
3. Good Knowledge of their Job						1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4. Ability to Lead by Example						1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
5. Explains his/ her actions and decisions.						1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
6. Communication Skills						1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
7. Impartiality						1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
8. Honesty						1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
9. Trustworthiness						1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10. Approachability						1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
11. Consistency						1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Not very Important 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Very Important

12. Loyalty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
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13. Ability to give Praise when due	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
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14. Flexibility	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
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15. Treats Everyone Equally	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
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16. Reliability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
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17. Listens to Staff	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
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18. A Sense of Humour	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
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19. Decisiveness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
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20. Knowledge and Understanding of									
Capabilities/ Character of Staff	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

21. In the **Police Force**, how important do you think it is for a leader to be fair and just?

Not very Important 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Very Important

22. In general, how important do you think it is for a leader to be fair and just?

Not very Important 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Very Important

23. Do you think that a **good** leader will always be a **fair** one?

Never 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Always

24. Do you think that a **fair** leader will always be a **good** one ?

Never 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Always